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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to ascertain (1) the types of jobs the graduates possessed and (2) the relationships between previous employment or formal education and current employment. The factors most significantly related to one's present job were college employment, whether one's psychological base learned during the respondent's academic preparation was applied, and preceding job. The year the Ph.D. was granted was significantly related to one's first job; less than 33% of those who graduated prior to 1964 began in the fields of college counseling and counselor education, but of those who received their Ph.D.s in 1964-1972, more than 50% began in these fields. Almost 50% of the 1952-1963 graduates began their careers as either professors, student personnel administrators, or researchers, but these three fields were the start for only 15% of the graduates of the later time span. The number of fields responsible for the graduates' first job increased with the passage of time, showing that these people are entering a more diverse set of positions. (Author)

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CAREER SURVEY OF 135 PhD RECIPIENTS IN COUNSELING AND STUDENT PERSONNEL PSYCHOLOGY

University of Minnesota Graduates between 1952 and 1972

Susan Lichtenman-Wernett
University of Minnesota

In partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
master of arts

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

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Abstract

The 135 people who received PhDs from the University of Minnesota's Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology during the years 1952-1972 were the subjects of this study. Questionnaires were mailed to them, as was a follow-up copy, if necessary. The purpose of the questionnaire was to collect information to ascertain (1) the types of jobs the graduates possessed and (2) the relationships between previous employment or formal education and current employment. The factors most significantly related to one's present job were: (a) college employment (b) whether one's psychological base learned during the respondent's academic preparation was applied, and (c) preceding job. The year the PhD was granted was significantly related to one's first job; less than 33% of those who graduated prior to 1964 began in the fields of college counseling and counselor education, but of those who received their PhDs in 1964-1972, more than 50% began in these two fields. Almost 50% of the 1952-1963 graduates began their careers as either professors, student personnel administrators, or researchers, but these three fields were the start for only 15% of the graduates of the later time span. The number of fields responsible for the graduates' first jobs increased with the passage of time, showing that these people are entering a more diverse set of positions. Ten occupational categories accounted for the first employment of the 34 1952-1957 graduates; eight categories for the 26 1958-1963 graduates, ten categories for

the 1964-1969 graduates, and eleven categories were necessary for the 1970-1972 graduates, even though there were only 15 of them. The latter graduates added the areas of student personnel education and unemployed to the list, but they also had no school psychologists, academic administrators, or researchers. Since 82% of those contacted returned their questionnaire, the results are presented as valid. It is possible that an even greater response would have been received had the forms not been sent so near to summer vacation.

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Introduction

This paper, a follow-up of the careers of the 135 people who received PhDs from the University of Minnesota's Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology during the years 1952-1972, was undertaken after the investigator learned that much of this very faculty was not aware of the type of employment secured by many of its graduates. This researcher also hypothesized that the results would be an aid to the faculty, for they would learn whether the skills they were teaching were being used in the employment secured by the graduates. This investigator felt follow-up is necessary in order to keep the courses of the Department relevant to the job market awaiting the graduates.

Although many of the theories concerning career development are not specific, some of the broad ideas instigated the questions asked on the questionnaire. Super (1971) stated that reality testing is a very important part of an individual's career, and this researcher believed that the experiences of one job would then determine the values to be looked for in another. Therefore, the first request of the questionnaire was for a listing of all of the subjects' jobs, including those held as a graduate student.

Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma (1951) were a little more specific in their statements as to how one chooses a career. They claimed that an individual's evaluation of actual occurrences was important, and so the population was asked whether their dissertation and/or psychological base received in their academic preparation were related to their position. A more complete discussion of the questions studied begins on page 72.

Questionnaires were sent to all 135 people who had received their PhD from the University of Minnesota's Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology between 1952 and 1972. This span of time was chosen for a variety of reasons. It provided a large enough population (more than 100) so that valid results could be obtained, and also was a time span recent enough to the present to indicate trends. In courses at the University of Minnesota, numerous professors had spoken of the changing role of counselors, so this time span study would also show whether this change did in fact exist. Many people, both in the public press and in the professional literature, were concerned about the abundance of PhD recipients in the 1970's, so this researcher desired to see how they were coping with the changing job market.

This researcher wished to design a valid questionnaire that would be returned by all of the recipients, so she executed a comprehensive review of the literature regarding this subject. She knew that the questionnaire was a widely used tool, and she felt this review would help her to avoid the already-known problems and also to help make it as valuable a form as possible.

Since this researcher felt the facts would speak for themselves, she felt less need for reviews of the literature regarding career theories as a whole and the specific patterns of PhD recipients. This investigator wanted to be assured that the questionnaire itself was both successful and valid, and then the readers could interpret the results according to the details of various career theories, if they so wished.

Questionnaire Design and Use

Much criticism has been recorded regarding the gathering of information via surveys, but the method is still very much in use and has been employed for thousands of years. Its wide use can probably be explained by the fact that it is a highly efficient process for bringing in a large volume of data at a relatively low cost and does provide objective data regarding the range of variation. Possibly the earliest recording of this method is found in The Book of Numbers in the Old Testament. This, of course, is a fundamental example of a survey, merely a written record resulting from a counting of the wealth of the tribe in terms of both people and animals. Today's decennial census is evidence that this method of gathering information has withstood much of the criticism directed at it. Since it is often impractical and at times, impossible to actually travel to each participant being studied, the mail questionnaire has also been used to gather information, both factual and attitudinal. That is the tool that will be the subject of this review since it is the one employed in this study. Its use apparently dates as far back as 1847 when Horace Mann began employing it in his research; however, relevant literature written between 1952 and 1972 has been reviewed for this paper.

As a method of research, the questionnaire provides an informational flow by way of feedback. Therefore, it can be used to verify either a categorized or a theoretical system.

An interview can also be employed similarly, but in this instance the field worker can also view reactions, go into detail regarding difficult questions or jargon, and note degrees of variation in subjects. Even though these two methods of gathering data are often compared, some feel that they are not really in the same league since it can not be assumed that the written word possesses the same connotation for the reader as that derived by the listener from the spoken word. However, since both methods have been used to survey populations, and since many studies comparing the two methods have been undertaken, this reviewer will summarize some of the findings regarding these informational flows.

Besides the above-mentioned advantages of interviews, it was found in one study (Sjoberg, 1954), where jobs, finances, political beliefs, religious beliefs, and family life were the subjects discussed, 52% of those in the highest socioeconomic group liked the interviewers to come to their homes, 28% did not, and 20% were neutral. Of those questioned, 55% preferred a personal interview, 17% preferred mail, 11% phone, and 17% did not know. These statistics must be viewed with skepticism, however, since Sjoberg probably received these figures during his interview, and it is possible that his respondents did not feel comfortable stating their preference for another method.

Some claim that the interview is a more valid instrument than the questionnaire. For example, Jackson and Rothney (1961) found that the responses to an interview were much deeper and more complete when compared to those to a questionnaire; the interview, in fact, elicited many responses not drawn out by the questionnaire. They also found a more favorable response rate for the interview (98.1%) as compared to the 83.3% response for the questionnaire. These researchers felt that two-thirds of the participants answered consistently whether surveyed by a questionnaire or interview. In view of this point, this reviewer finds it difficult to justify the fact that, exclusive of time, for every dollar spent on the mailed questionnaire, 60 dollars was spent on the interview. Trainers (1964) also claimed more complete results for interviews. He stated that whereas interviewers frequently report less than five percent refuse to answer queries, about 60% refuse to answer questionnaires. (This number seems high, as will be seen in the section dealing with nonresponse.) He also discovered a tendency for those who answer questionnaires to leave out the answers to some questions, due either to forgetfulness or an aversion for facing the particular issue. He felt that incomplete returns, however, were a rarity as far as interviews are concerned. So impressed with the interview was Trainers that he spoke of the transition in survey instruments that began in the 1940's and noted that in most fields the elaborate interview has replaced the mail questionnaire; however, he found it unfortunate that educational research has not become a part of this trend.

Even though Trainers (1964) and Jackson and Rothney (1961) found that interviews produced much more complete data, this data is not altogether free from bias, especially when culturally taboo subjects are under study. Metzner and Mann (1952) found the questionnaire at least as adequate as the one-time interview, and in another study (Parker, Wright, & Clark, 1957), where 247 scholarship students were interviewed by three interviewers, it was reported: "The data indicate, as do data in other studies, that the interview does not yield 100% reliable data." (p.220) Walsh (1968) studied the accuracy of the interview, questionnaire, and personal data blank for collecting verifiable data and found that no one method elicits more accurate self-reporting than another for a particular sample of biographical material collected from male college students. He reported that of 27 studies investigating the validity of interview data, 13 gave the impression of high validity, 9 of low validity, and 5 yielded ambiguous results. Since these numbers are so very small, and since Walsh's definition of validity is unknown, the validity of his own findings cannot be judged.

Alderfer (1967) and McDonagh and Rosenblum (1965) added more support to the questionnaire in this controversy, for they found that questionnaire methods can be used to replicate interview results and vice versa. The latter researchers, using a questionnaire on prejudice, found no statistically significant differences between a mailed questionnaire and an organized interview, as far as identical questions were concerned. In fact, their study showed that a mailed questionnaire may provide representative responses even though one receives only partial returns; there was no significant difference between responses to the questionnaire and those to the interview given the nonrespondents. Wallace (1954) also found relative agreement between the two methods, especially when white collar workers are the subjects.

Instead of viewing the interview and questionnaire as alternatives, Donald (1960) used an expensive phone interview to reach the nonrespondents in her study. When surveying members of the League of Women Voters she found that this interview did not add significantly to the information she had already obtained.

It can be seen, therefore, that the questionnaire should not be disregarded, simply because no face to face contact is involved. Besides not proving any more valuable than the questionnaire, the interview possesses its own inherent difficulties. Since different interviewers are employed, and also since the same interviewer encounters many different situations, there often tends to be a lack of constant order both in posing the questions and evaluating the responses. There is also the possibility that the interviewer might lead the individual to give biased answers. This has been known to occur even after the experimenter has gone through the process of recruiting, training, and supervising the interviewers. One final disadvantage of the interview is that since the method involves contacting the participants directly, it becomes very costly to follow mobile individuals.

Now, to turn to the main topic of this study: the questionnaire. Not only is this form one of the most economical tools available to researchers, but it also possesses other advantages. Since this method provides an invariableness to the questions, order, and context, comparisons between individuals are possible. This quality also insures a fixed interpretation of the data. Whether the subject is asked to complete a yes-no checklist or whether the questionnaire is extensive and complicated, this method has proved effective, and insures the accurate transmission of information because no intermediary is involved. In fact, even though the questionnaire has rarely had the benefit of good press, many researchers claim that if it is used correctly, it is a legitimate tool which can be used to ascertain some of the personal factors influencing behavior and also other types of information.

The questionnaire is the form employed most frequently in the field of education when studying the traits of a selected population. It is claimed that thousands of faculty and graduate students make use of this method each year, along with the seventy-five organizations which send out annual questionnaires to colleges and universities, requesting a variety of information. Some, however, such as Chamberlin (1963), are not discouraged by this fact. He said: "By and large, these requests make reasonable demands and are intelligent attempts to obtain useful information." (p.427)

Because of the frequency of its use, the questionnaire is also probably one of the most abused of the data-collecting devices. This is due to the fact that many people just throw together a set of questions and label the result a questionnaire. It is very easy to produce a low-quality questionnaire, and unfortunately, these are what give the method a bad name. Mouly said that it was probably the subject of the most censure, but it was still the instrument most used and most abused in educational research (Sieber, 1968). It has been estimated that questionnaires and testing studies are used in more than half of the total studies in education (Good, 1966); this fact is not a valid excuse for this abuse, of course, but it certainly does contribute to the explanation for these methodological problems. In addition, it has also been found that more than 90% of all social science research is derived from either interviews or questionnaires (Good, 1966). Therefore, it is not surprising to find that, "today as in 1930, the criticisms of the questionnaire are aimed at its abuse rather than at its use" (Mouly, 1963, p.261).

The same writer (Mouly, 1963) stated: "The present concensus is that, when properly used, the questionnaire has potentialities as an instrument of science" (p.262). Among some of the tool's supporters, Topp and McGrath (1950) claimed that if the questionnaire were eliminated, advances in many fields of education would be handicapped and much beneficial information would be lost. It seems that these social researchers would probably agree with Barton and Lazarsfeld (1962), who said that "...quantitative social research seldom finds immediate answers to large and complex problems,..." (p.168). It does, however, aid in the avoidance of mistakes, so it should not be discarded.

Similar to other methods of research, the questionnaire does possess disadvantages, about which more will be discussed later. A few general statements are in order, though. Since only a small amount of research has been undertaken regarding the relative validity of the information compiled, this factor is not well known. In an attempt to shed some light on this problem, Walsh (1968) reported that three studies using questionnaire data gave the impression of high validity while four reports were low in this area. This is such an insignificant number of studies, though, that it is difficult to put much weight on this finding, and since details are not presented, it is difficult to know how valid the studies were.

One of the main disadvantages of the mail questionnaire is that no matter how cognitively entertaining or interesting it is, it is an imposition to those who receive it. To justify this imposition, and therefore persuade the potential respondent to offer time and energy to an unknown researcher, resistance should be anticipated. Generally speaking, Bachrach and Scoble (1967) stated: "Overcoming resistance to this kind of imposition requires persuasion, persistence, and attention to procedural techniques and details calculated to activate a potential respondent" (p.271).

Pretest

As the development of a questionnaire involves many steps and as there are many components of the questionnaire itself, there are numerous procedural techniques which demand attention. Before the questionnaire is mailed, or in some cases, before it is finalized, some investigators suggest a pilot study be undertaken. Most of the literature does not agree with Yates (1960), who felt pretests are not required normally for material with which there is considerable previous survey experience. He claimed the information derived from past surveys is sufficient in the planning of further surveys.

Yates (1960), however, is outnumbered by those who spoke in favor of pretests. Stephan and McCarthy (1958) found this preliminary study valuable, in that it provides "information on ... the devices needed to secure and maintain the respondents' cooperation, on the types of answers to be expected, and on the extent to which these answers provide the desired data" (p.395). The investigator, forewarned of difficulties that have defied prediction, may discover means of overcoming them. The pretest is especially useful if one is uncertain about the measurement instrument itself. Goode and Hatt (1952) also found such a study useful and commented that it is necessary because the comments of colleagues or students are just not sufficient.

To increase the knowledge gained by the investigator from the pretest, VanDalen (1962) suggested clearly explaining both the purpose of the study and the specific intent of each question to the participants. However, this reviewer feels that would be defeating part of the purpose of the pretest, as the questionnaire should speak clearly for itself. VanDalen's suggestion is similar to one by Sellitz, Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook (1959) which seems to be somewhat more logical. The latter authors felt the pretest should be in the form of a personal interview, at which time the questions are discussed with the respondents after they have answered them. In this way, the investigator can learn what each question meant to each respondent and what difficulties were experienced in replying. After these initial interviews, a mail pretest can then be conducted.

Other authors are even more specific regarding the expected outcomes of pilot studies. Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) said this study should focus on the inclusiveness of the categories of the questions and the clarity and meaningfulness of individual queries. Rummel (1958) suggested that questions which the tryout group either omits or answers superficially can be revised. Herriott (1969), Furno (1966), and Kahn and Cannell (1957) all agreed with this advice, Furno adding that the pilot study also helped to eliminate poor form design. Finally, Robertson (1961) emphasized the importance of clear directions, and to insure this end, he executed a pretest.

Although it has seldom been undertaken, some researchers have prepared their recipients for the questionnaire they will soon be receiving. With both the interview and the questionnaire, one of the factors contributing to an individual's refusal to respond is whether or not she/he was informed in advance of the questioning. Beginning with some type of advance notice is more than occasionally suggested (Ford, 1968; Best, 1959), but no one has stated if it is more beneficial to employ a preliminary card, a letter, or a phone call. Rather than contacting each participant individually, the same type of effect could also possibly result from a publicity campaign, as Kephart and Bressler (1958) attempted in their study of Pennsylvania nurses. Their proposed survey had received a fair amount of publicity in local newspapers as well as in nursing journals. Besides this general publicity campaign, one group of nurses received personal letters a week before the questionnaires were mailed. These letters, in addition to informing them of the impending questionnaire, told each nurse that she was a member of a particularly selected group. The letter ended with a plea for everyone's cooperation, but this was just not enough to increase the response rate. The researchers were especially disappointed since they had originally hoped that the preview would prove substantially less costly than follow-ups. They stated: "Previews, however, apparently have the same psychological nil-effect of post care reminders." (Kephart and Bressler, 1958, p.127).

On the other hand, however, Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) felt that respondent preparation and involvement is a very necessary element of the questionnaire process. In a study they carried out involving Blue Cross administrators, each subject first received a preparatory letter, but since the response rate was not reported, the researchers' word will have to be accepted that this method was effective. Waisanen (1954), however, did provide proof that a similar method aided him.

Before he sent a general segment of the population a questionnaire regarding television ownership, he phoned half of the future recipients. His response from those phoned as compared to those who had not been phoned was significantly greater. However, using ten independent studies with response rates between 45 and 60%, Robin (1965) found that the prequestionnaire letter did not make a significant effect in the rate of response.

Since bias is always a problem with any type of survey, it seems that many investigators are cautious about using previews, especially insofar as selection of subjects is concerned. If questionnaires are mailed only to those who have indicated a willingness to participate, will the results of the study be different from one in which questionnaires were mailed to a census or to a truly random sample? In both instances, the problem of nonresponse enters, and what really needs examination is whether the person who voluntarily completed a questionnaire is different from the one who volunteers to partake in a study before even seeing the questions she/he will answer.

Cover Letter

The next procedure to examine is the development of the questionnaire and accompanying cover letter. Many suggestions regarding cover letters are also relevant for the questionnaire, so the two will often be interchangeable in the following discussion. The cover letter is analogous to the opening "sales talk" of the interviewer. It explains what the investigator is doing, why, and for whom. This is a time when objections must be anticipated, and hopefully answered; the potential respondents must feel that there is nothing hidden, and no part of the questionnaire should arouse suspicion.

Throughout the past 30 years, many variables and their effect on the return rate have been studied, and it has been found that the characteristics of the cover letter, such as the sponsor, do indeed make a difference. The designation of the sponsoring agency or organizations is centered at the top of the page, and Goode and Hatt (1952) felt this conveys the impression of scientific competence. Occasionally, however this use of a letterhead can backfire, as the organization under whose name the measuring instrument is presented to the population must be a respected one. Many (Leslie, 1970; Roeher, 1963), however claimed that one of the main influences on the response rate is the sponsorship displayed in the letterhead, although some, such as Kawash and Aleamoni (1971) felt the type of letterhead used must be combined with another variable, such as a signature by a prestigious authority. The latter researchers opted for varying at least two variables because they claimed no single one is very effective in inducing higher return rates.

Snelling (1969) espoused as much personalization as possible and had his cover letter individually typed on a letterhead bearing both the college name and the department in which the respondent majored. He seemed to carry the idea of a letterhead one step further than Kephart and Bressler (1959), who had their cover letters multilithed on paper carrying the University of Pennsylvania letterhead. Besides the name of the sponsoring agency appearing on the cover letter, Rummel (1958) recommended placing it on the questionnaire, and Robin (1965) said it should appear on the follow-up.

Added to this letterhead, Leslie (1970), Thomas (1964), Rummel (1958), and Nixon (1954) suggested the use of another, separate endorsement emanating from an individual who holds the respect of the recipients. In a survey of 1452 recent liberal arts graduates, Snelling (1969) sent each an individual letter signed by a college professor close to the graduate. After two months and two short follow-ups, he received a response of 92.6%. Since this reviewer could find no control studies testing the effect of a letterhead, it seems the investigator would be relying solely on advice and common sense in using this device.

Because the cover letter is indeed a "sales talk" for the questionnaire, it must quickly arouse interest in the study. It is difficult, however, to anticipate just which type of appeal will be the most meaningful for the recipients, even though this particular variable has been the subject of much study. It is fairly obvious which kind of appeals are harmful, but even so, they are still occasionally employed. As an example, Chamberlin (1963) described the axgrinder as a researcher already biased enough to begin her/his correspondence stating: "We are attempting to show" or "We have a strong feeling that--!" (pp.427-428). It is people like this who aid in maintaining the undesirable image the questionnaire has established. Similarly, people who begin their cover letters by stating "It would be good to know..." or "I have to write a thesis" do not convey adequate justification for cooperation.

Whether it is more beneficial to use an egoistic or an altruistic appeal has long been debated. Some researchers have combined the two, striving to both personally involve the recipient in the study and to convey the seriousness and importance of the results themselves (Linsky, 1965). Champion and Sear (1969) found that their response rates were greater where the cover letter emphasized the benefit the respondent would receive, but their subjects were randomly selected members of three southern communities, so their results may not be transferable to those in the field of social service. Levine and Gordon (1958-1959), although offering no personal benefits to the Blue Cross administrators they surveyed, did assure their potential respondents that the proposed results would justify the time and effort expended in filling out the questionnaire. In addition, Rummel (1958) suggested that if it is in accord with the facts, each individual be informed that she/he is one of a select list being asked to help, even though the investigator is aware of the numerous demands on the time of the respondent.

In dealing with social research, Goode and Hatt (1952) stated that "extensive research has demonstrated that an appeal to disinterested motives is strongest"(p.178). They, like Levine and Gordon (1958-1959), suggested that besides explaining the reason for the study, the latter a suggestion also espoused by Thomas (1964), the researcher appeal to the respondents' altruistic interests by informing her/him of the benefits the research organization would derive. They suggested informing the respondent that this information is needed by educational leaders or will contribute to the advancement of science, whatever the case may be. No matter who will be benefited by the survey, both Marshall (1960) and Rummel (1958) strongly recommended assuring the potential answerer as to what will be done with the data as she/he has the right and responsibility to know exactly in what she/he is partaking.

Reward

Very closely related to the nature of the appeal transmitted by the cover letter is the subject of the specific rewards offered the respondents. In educational circles a copy of the final report, or at least notification of the results of the study, is considered an appropriate reward. In fact, so taken for granted is this copy of the study, Chamberlin (1963) labelled as the "one-sider" the individual who never promises to send a summary of her/his results, and even if such is requested, either neglects to do so, or mails it so late that the findings are no longer of interest to the participants.

Researchers have had mixed results in their quest to discover an effective premium. Instead of employing cash, a common inducement used to increase response, Pucel, Nelson, and Wheeler (1971) enclosed either a packet of coffee, a pencil, or both with the 1128 surveys they sent to graduates of the Minnesota Area Vocational Technical Schools. They also experimented with colored questionnaires and pre-letters and found that as they increased the number of incentives, their response rate improved significantly. In addition, as the number of novelties received increased, the respondents were quicker to return their questionnaires.

Crowley (1959) mailed a checklist to a group of teachers, half of whom were paid two dollars for filling them out. Eighty-three percent of the non-paid group responded, while 100% of those paid did so. This is significant beyond the .01 level, and was accounted for by many of the teachers who said that such consideration was long overdue.

Similar to the above study, Robinson and Agisim (1951) received a 70% return of their questionnaire when they enclosed a quarter as an inducment; this was compared to the 15% response the comparable group, offered no inducement, returned. In a study stimulated by this one, Kephart and Bressler (1958) designated that some of their randomly selected nurses would receive either a penny, a nickel, a dime, or a quarter. A few of their subjects returned the coins, both with and without completed questionnaires. Discounting the women who received a quarter, the predominant mood was one of indifference, indicating that the pennies, nickels, and dimes provided little motivation. However, the returns from the group receiving a quarter were not significantly greater than those from the group that was sent a follow-up. This displays the fact that the researcher must figure the inducement cost rather closely, since it seems that if the study is academically oriented, monetary inducements do not usually increase the percentage of returns over and above those attainable through routine methods. As in the case of sending questionnaires only to those who previously volunteer to complete them, the inclusion of an incentive, especially a monetary one, leaves the representativeness of the sample in question. Kephart and Bressler concluded: "With regard to inducements, one must ask whether, for example, the inclusion of a quarter with a questionnaire tends to augment or even create sampling bias among the receivers. It is quite possible that people who are influenced by a quarter... may differ from those not so affected" (p.132). If the results of the following studies are borne out, however, this worry about bias may be unnecessary, as they found that the inclusion of cash made no difference.

In a pilot study conducted in the Washington Heights district of Manhattan, Dohrenwend (1970-1971) offered five dollars to half of her potential respondents. When she conducted her follow-up, she offered five dollars to those not originally offered it, but in both cases found that it made no difference in the returns. This is similar to a study of which Wilcox (1965) wrote where several letters were sent offering individuals one dollar if they would reply; even so, not one person responded. It seems that participants find the money offered insignificant as compared to the amount of time and thought asked of them.

Return Envelope

Since a stamped, return envelope is included with the questionnaire, both Robin (1965) and Nixon (1954) recommended mentioning in the cover letter that one is enclosed. It is hoped that this will both impress on the respondents the consideration shown for them and the importance of their returning the questionnaire. In case this envelope should be misplaced or even if the respondent would like to make an easy check on the source of the request, the full name, title, complete address, and phone number of the researcher should also be included in the cover letter.

Anonymity

Although the guarantee of anonymity is seldom mentioned, those who do write about it definitely suggest both assuring it and maintaining it. In an attempt to increase the return rate, Nixon (1954) recommended asking the respondent whether her/his name and that of her/his institution may be directly credited with any of the data. He claimed that this technique assures some confidential returns that would not be submitted otherwise. However, he has no data proving his suggestion, and this reviewer feels it would probably be best to name no one in the study, unless it is absolutely essential. Therefore, an assurance of confidentiality would be all that would be necessary.

In a closely related study Mason, Dressel, and Bain (1961) sent four different forms of surveys to beginning teachers.

Form A was lengthy and included the respondent's name and address directly on the form; Form B was also lengthy, but included a code number rather than the participant's name and address; Form C was short and displayed the subject's name and address; Form D was short and marked with a code number. This study only indirectly measured the effect of confidentiality on the subjects, but it was thought that those whose names appeared directly on the form would be somewhat wary of completing it. This did not result, though, as there were no significant differences in the return rates between the four groups. This leads this reviewer to speculate that maybe many respondents are not terribly worried about confidentiality.

Deadline

Although the inclusion of a deadline is not unanimously agreed upon, if one is used, it should be specified in the cover letter. Robin (1965) stated that it is injudicious to mention a deadline, as it implies that there will be an unending stream of requests. In his listing of people from whom he does not appreciate receiving questionnaires, Chamberlin (1963) included the deadliner, described in the following: "Easily detected by his apparent frankness, the 'deadliner' makes his position clear by stating that 'I am seeking to compile some information in a hurry.' This individual is the plague of most respondents, who, after all, are not personally concerned with term paper, thesis, and/or dissertation deadlines." (p.427) It is probable that the following authors, who did encourage mentioning a deadline, have other motives in mind and are not so blatant in espousing it.

Roeher (1963) and Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) felt the use of a deadline does increase returns, and Nixon (1954) recommended asking the form be returned either at the respondent's earliest convenience or by a specified date. Tallent (1959) specified that the deadline should be 18 days after the questionnaires are mailed. Since 100% response is the ultimate goal of the researcher, she/he must be very careful not to offend any of the respondents. The deadline must be reasonable and not seem the result of some "hurry-up" research. In a follow-up letter, the researcher should ask for the completed questionnaire, regardless of deadline.

Personalization of cover letters is usually suggested. However, Simon (1967) stated that personally typed cover letters had no clear-cut advantage when compared to mimeographed form letters, since neither method resulted in a higher response rate. To ascertain the effectiveness of personal versus form letters in eliciting responses to a mailed questionnaire, he reviewed studies of both readership and of a hospital insurance plan. In each study, all letters mailed were identical in content, but one group was mailed a form letter and a second group received a personally typed letter. In both cases, the participant's address was personally typed onto the envelope. Simon found that there was no significant difference between percentages of returns and suggested that in somce instances a personally typed cover letter can inhibit rather than increase the number of returns. He felt that when the target population is a group of employees, a personally addressed letter may seem to threaten the assured anonymity.

In a similar study, Kawash and Aleamoni (1971) mailed questionnaires regarding the employment of and attitudes concerning audiovisual instructional materials to 3091 faculty of the University of Illinois. Of these, 1546 were sent a cover letter signed personally by the researcher and the other 1545 received exactly the same cover letter except the researcher's signature was a mimeographed copy. There was no difference in return rates.

Although the data they provide is not as specific, Weilbacher and Walsh (1952) came up with comparable results. In a questionnaire study mailed to alumni of a professional fraternity, the last name of the recipient was included on some of the cover letters. Forty-three percent of all the questionnaires were returned, but there were no significant differences between the two return rates.

Since the above studies did control the variable of personalization, they hold more weight than the numerous investigators who suggested including a personal element within the cover letter. However, contrary to most researchers on his side, Linsky (1965) did provide figures to support his advice. He sent out many types of cover letters in a survey of nurses and received a

40.4% response from those whose letters bore personal salutations and signatures, while only a 32.0% response from those whose letters contained mimeographed salutations and signatures.

There are many claims that a typed letter increases returns. Roeher (1963) and Rummel (1958) provided no data to support this claim of theirs, and Longworth (1953) found that a personal note and typed letter of explanation increased his returns five percent, but this difference was not statistically significant. Thomas (1964), without providing data, agreed that each cover letter should be individually typed, especially when the recipient is in a field where she/he receives much mail. He felt that this type of person grants more serious consideration to mail directed personally to her/him. This researcher feels that that end could be reached by addressing each form letter personally, rather than typing each one individually, and agreeing with the latter idea are Tallent (1959) and Nixon (1954). Tallent addressed each of his 1567 cover letters personally to the psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers who were his potential respondents, and after two follow-up letters, he received a completed questionnaire from 97.7% of the 393 psychologists, 81.2% of the 741 psychiatrists, and 97.2% of the 433 social workers. This is indeed a high return rate, but the questionnaire dealt with an area in which the individuals of the three disciplines are very professionally concerned, so this return rate was definitely not a result only of the personally addressed cover letter.

Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) advised that a personal touch in the cover letter is effective in increasing returns as is the signature of the researcher whose name is on the stationery. They also recommended a handwritten postscript, and Frazier and Bird (1958) received significantly more of the completed questionnaires containing a handwritten postscript asking both for the respondent's help and for her/him to return it promptly. Russell, Konrad, and Kaluzny (1970) also found a postscript effective; they mailed 623 questionnaires to a sample of hospitals and addressed each form to the hospital administrator. Besides adding a postscript to some of the instruments, they also employed three mailing conditions and either wrote "personal" on the envelope or omitted it. To control all the variables they were testing, each case was randomly designated to one of the 12 possible treatment groups. Of those forms mailed airmail, special delivery, including both the postscript and the "personal" marking, 92% were returned. These researchers commented that the postscript is valuable and that it did increase their returns, but they do not give individual breakdowns of response rates, so the reader must use her/his own judgment.

Length

Other than keeping the cover letter brief and concise, there are no specific suggestions regarding its length. It has been claimed that neither a lengthy cover letter nor a lengthy questionnaire can result in many responses. If, in fact, the instrument can be completed in a relatively short time, this fact should certainly be stated. Since questionnaires have for so long been the victim of bad press, it is advisable to employ the terms "form" and/or "instrument" when one is referring to such a device.

Appearance

Another important aspect of the cover letter is its appearance, and that of the questionnaire and follow-up letter will also be discussed at this point, since this factor is interchangeable regarding all forms. Even though this variable has been the subject of much of the past 30 years' research, different opinions are still propounded. Some researchers felt that a clearly duplicated or printed questionnaire is all that is necessary to achieve the physically attractive form that is claimed to bring in the most returns, while others go so far as to add color and/or illustrations to their instruments. The only seemingly obvious recommendation in this area is one by Goode and Hatt (1952), who stated: "Even when the form is to be mimeographed, the paper should be good enough to allow either ink or pencil, for either may have to be used in certain cases"(p.148). Since the quality of paper is mentioned infrequently in the literature, it can be surmised that it does not often present a problem.

Color, however, is discussed. In the field of advertising, Bender (1957) found that colored mailings as a group resulted in a higher return than did white paper in white envelopes, but the difference in replies was not significant.

Levine and Gordon (1958-1959), Robinson (1952), and Seitz (1944) recommended using color as a means of increasing response rates, but they did not produce studies to prove their point. This investigator feels that most experiments have not varied color since colored mailings are too often regarded by their recipients as flashy and unimportant.

On the other hand, variations have been made regarding the type of duplication employed. It was suggested by some (Goode & Hatt, 1952) that mimeograph paper should not be used since it is likely to become smudged or blotted, but others (Ford, 1968; Rummel, 1958) stated that this is not a problem if the job is well done. Ford, in fact, stated: "Testing the influence of the reproductions method on response rate shows that the printed, folder-type questionnaire outpulled the mimeographed, stapled, legal-size questionnaire..." (p.44). He went on to state, though, that this difference was not significant at the five percent level and also resulted in a negligible effect on the decreasing of item response. "For the printed form 21.6% of the questions were unanswered compared to 22.2% for the mimeographed form with the difference not significant" (p.44). These results are very similar to those found by Scott (1961), although he did not go so far as to test item nonresponse.

Even though no studies have proved that a printed questionnaire greatly outdraws a mimeographed one, this researcher feels it is wise to use print or at least an offset process. Since a questionnaire's appearance may often determine whether it is read or thrown away, it is important that the form look as attractive as possible. Another advantage of commercial printing is the fact that this process results in smaller letters and numbers which result in a shorter questionnaire, as far as space is concerned. It has already been stated that it is advantageous to keep the cover letter from appearing too lengthy, and this claim is also propounded for both the questionnaire itself and the follow-up letter.

Another factor which has seldom been studied is the field of illustrations. This area is probably considered infrequently because much of the survey research is a type which does not lend itself well to illustrations (i.e. follow-ups, perceptions, economic facts, age data, product testing, etc.). Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) recommended designing a mail questionnaire that sells itself, and they felt this calls for the use of graphic materials. However, Ford (1968) warned that illustrations must be handled carefully since they may create a cluttered appearance if used extravagantly, and Erdos (1957) stated that illustrations, other than where necessary, do not usually increase returns.

Form

Closely related to the appearance of the mailing is the form of the questionnaire itself. The researchers who commented on this subject stated that the personality of each respondent as a unique individual must be respected (Snelling, 1969; Krejčí, 1968). According to Furno (1966), a well-designed questionnaire is easy to read and follow and is designed so that the respondent's writing flow is continuous. When requesting the desired information be supplied, the least necessary number of words should be used, and the amount of writing requested of the subject should be reduced to an absolute minimum. Added to this is the suggestion espoused by Nixon (1954) that questions requiring varying types of responses or markings be placed in different sections.

Goode and Hatt (1952) felt that if the above recomendations are followed the questionnaire develops into a unity which then does not require the subject to jump around from one frame of reference to another. They suggested beginning with an attention-catching, but non-controversial item. They went on to say: "In fact, schedules or questionnaires often begin with irrelevant or harmless questions" (p.132). However, this investigator would not recommend that tactic, for many potential respondents might judge the questionnaire by its first question, and then decide an irrelevant questionnaire is not worth their time. Since the establishment of rapport with one's subjects is vital, it is important to mail a questionnaire with a well-designed and non-complex form.

Webster (Webster's Dictionary, 1965) defines a questionnaire in the following manner: "a set of questions for obtaining statistically useful or personal information from individuals" (p.701). Marshall (1960) added his own values to this definition in his description of an optimum form: "The best questionnaire is a blank sheet of paper and a proper freedom for the answerer" (p.177). It seems, however, that if one is careful of the contents it is possible to mail a fairly standard form which has a high probability of being returned. Goode and Hatt (1952) claimed that the questionnaire must convice the respondent that she/he is not merely being quizzed but is taking an active part in an interesting and useful process. They stated that this cooperative feeling leads to more valid data. Some (Leiblen, 1968; Donald, 1960) stated that reply rates are high when those queried are associated in some way with the organization responsible for the study, and it is logical that the more pleasant associations an individual has with the source of the questionnaire, the more likely she/he is to respond.

Population

Another great impetus to a good response is a population especially interested or involved in the content areas covered. This objective can be problematical, however, because there may be a real temptation to cover too many areas. As early as 1920, F. Stuart Chapin (1920) recommended including as few questions as possible because a bulky questionnaire would seem more formidable than it really was, and would therefore deter replies. Furno (1966) was more specific on this topic, saying that information not absolutely essential and pertinent to the purpose of the study should not be requested. His suggestion makes much more sense than that of Goode and Hatt's (1952), discussed earlier, that the questionnaire commence with irrelevant queries.

Facts vs. Opinions

If one mails a questionnaire requesting facts rather than opinions, the response rate is likely to be greater (Jackson & Rothney, 1961). There are probably many reasons for this, the most obvious one being that checking "yes" or "no" or circling a given alternative requires less time than responding to a series of open-ended questions.

Content

Whether a survey deals with past, present, or projected data, the researcher must be assured that the problem is significant, either practically or theoretically. This problem must be clearly defined and deemed important enough to request the time of busy and important people. Once all of these factors are considered, and the researcher has determined whether a multiphasic or single-subject form will be developed (Clausen and Ford recommended the former 1947), the researcher is ready to begin work on the actual questionnaire itself.

Question

Since the question is the fundamental unit of data collection in the social sciences, an inexperienced researcher may feel that drawing up a set of queries is all that need be undertaken. However, Goode and Hatt (1952) felt that the questionnaire cannot begin to be formulated before the researcher has ascertained as much as possible about the subject at hand. After the investigator has conferred with associates and friends, a rough formulation of some of the proposed questions may be developed. As long as the researcher realizes that each item in a questionnaire ideally forms a hypothesis or at least a part of one, it should not be too difficult to eliminate unnecessary questions.

Because the researcher is not present when the subject receives the form, a dynamic questionnaire wherein the order of questions is determined by the subject's previous answers, will not even be a consideration in this discussion of mail questionnaires. However, since this appears to be one of the only areas in which a type of question is inapplicable to a mail questionnaire, the following discussion of questions is quite extensive. Since the content of the questions affect many areas of the study, from the derivation of relevant replies to the receipt of the respondents' cooperation, this area is a vital one.

Whether open or closed questions are the subject of consideration, it is very important to state each question unambiguously. One would expect that researchers would follow this advice without being reminded, but Freed (1964) claimed that it is a widespread error for an interrogation to be so unlimited in detail that neither the experimenter nor the subject comprehends what is being sought. Since the question is the heart of any survey, every effort should be made to be assured that it is not vague and thereby confusing to the respondents. Another element of this potential difficulty is that the use of unfamiliar jargon might lead the subject to assume that the questionnaire is not worth answering. Chamberlin (1963), Mouly (1963), and Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) are among those who told their readers that the queries must be entirely unambiguous and meaningful to the respondent. They should be brief, to the point, and as unbiased as possible. Added to this is the warning that each question should flow logically and easily from the one preceding it. It follows, then, that the optimal questionnaire would begin with simple, though not trivial, items and then move to those which are more complex; however, due to fatigue factors, the most important questions should not appear at the very end. Simultanwously, the questions should be progressing from a general area to one more specific, which can be accomplished by the use of funnel questions. Questions dealing with a specific subject should be grouped together, rather than interspersed throughout, since that tends to be tiring and disconcerting for the respondent. Adherence to this arrangement would result in questions that can be cross-interpreted and are therefore unified, at least from the standpoint of purpose.

While the above recommendations refer to the formulation of each specific question itself, general rules have also been proposed regarding the development of good questions (Lundstedt, 1969; Van Dalen, 1962). Before the researcher decides to include a specific question, she/he should be positive that the area of consideration is significant enough to cause concern. The question should be absolutely necessary to gather data that would add substantively to those facts previously ascertained. Each query should be carefully reasoned and clearly delineated to produce the exact responses required as data and at the same time, all of the questions taken together must sufficiently cover the important aspects of the necessary material. This would be simpler to accomplish if one were aware of the historical background against which each question is framed. After each question is developed, if closed questions are used, the researcher must provide an adequate number of alternatives to allow the respondent to express herself/himself properly and accurately.

The last of the above suggestions refers to closed questions, but open ones can also be employed, the format depending on the content covered. Closed questions are usually easier for the respondents, and therefore Robin (1965) and Robertson (1961) stated that these items are more likely to be answered. This investigator certainly would suggest asking for open responses only when absolutely necessary, especially in light of Falthzik and Carroll's (1971) findings regarding questionnaires mailed to the 200 largest firms across the country. They were questioned about the relative importance of a college graduate's personal characteristics at the time of recruitment, and there was a significant difference, depending on type of questionnaire, on the number of returns. Of the 100 firms receiving open-ended questionnaires, only 27% returned them while 78% of the 100 companies receiving closed questionnaires returned theirs. This suggests that even if the formulation of valid alternatives requires an extensive amount of time and effort, the researcher is rewarded in the number of returns she/he receives. Not only is this form of question easier for the respondent, but if classification is the researcher's objective, it is also most efficient for her/him, due to the fact that greater uniformity of responses is assured. If this is the case, the researcher must be sure that the respondents' opinions or data can be well structured.

As a rule, closed questions are less costly to analyze than open ones since their use ensures that the form in which the data is collected is proper for the type of analysis proposed. The alternatives may aid in clarifying the meaning of the question, but the researcher should certainly not try to force the respondent to express an opinion regarding a subject about which she/he hardly cares. In fact, some (Falthzik and Carroll, 1971; Backstrum and Hursh, 1963) felt that the frugality of the category system is not enough justification for surrendering the subtle meanings of the gathered information. These researchers warned that if the respondents had been given the option, they may have categorized themselves differently, and even though this form of question furnishes a more meaningful basis for comparison, it may not contain the alternative most suitable to the case of the respondent. Herriott (1969) stated that "elite respondents," such as university professors or school-board officials are frequently highly antagonized by specifically structured questions, so this could present a problem. If the researcher were dealing with such a population, she/he must decide whether the saving of time for all parties concerned justifies the possible uncooperativeness on the part of the proposed respondents. Phillips (1971) proffered a similar warning, and he did not limit his population, stating that the respondent may reply negatively to closed questions because he is not able to express highly individualized responses. If he were to feel that such procedures produced inaccuracies, he would probably come to question the value of the questionnaire as a whole.

Before proceeding to discuss open-ended questions, now is an appropriate time to study the alternatives allowed the respondent, since they are most important to the closed question. The tendency to choose alternatives which agree with the questions is a fear stated by Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) and Anderson (1958), but Fürntratt (1969) found no proof of this in a study of 217 adult subjects. On the other hand, Miklich (1966) claimed that the nature of the question itself can elicit an agreement-disagreement response set; he stated that if ambiguous questions are perceived as being important they will evoke agreement, while they will evoke disagreement if the respondent feels the query is unimportant.

The least complicated decisions are those regarding the physical arrangement of the question's alternatives. Besides separating the queries by either dots or extra space, Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) recommended placing category designations and/or space for the replies close together to avoid one possibility of error. If confusion is still possible, place a dotted line from the category to the proposed answer space. If this advice is followed, the check lists, fill-ins, or multiple choice questions are conveniently arranged. If yes and no replies are requested, Nixon (1954) recommended arranging them vertically instead of horizontally. If other types of questions are used, he along with Tallent and Reiss (1959) and Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) suggested that it is optimal to provide for mere checking of possible answers already present on the questionnaire rather than requesting a written response. In the case of either fill-ins or open-ended questions, Ford (1968) reminded the researcher to supply enough space for the answer, claiming that this seemingly obvious step will decrease item nonresponse.

Besides attending to the physical arrangement of the available alternatives, Gannon, Northern, and Carroll (1971), Van Dalen (1962), Tallent and Reiss (1959), and Nixon (1954) suggested leaving room for alternatives not provided by the researcher. Rather than merely leaving space for comments, Mouly (1963) suggested adding an additional category; however, he does warn that few will actually opt for this choice.

> This frequently requires adding an extra category asking for 'Other-Please specify' for the respondent who does not find any of the alternatives suitable. On the other hand, experience suggests that the respondent rarely exercises this option, almost invariably he simply accepts one of the alternatives provided rather than devise his own. It should be noted that the more scientifically oriented the respondent is, the more precise he tends to be and the more annoyed he is likely to become with preplanned alternatives, each of which he would have to qualify before it would cover his particular situation (p.250).

Best (1959) also suggested placing "kindly specify" as a subtitle under other, but he did not discuss whether or not he had found it to be used.

Related to Mouly's (1963) assertion that some respondents react negatively to categories in which they do not fit, Freed (1964) recommended permitting the respondent to mold the question to her/his individual situation. Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) proffered similar advice, although they suggested that the respondent be requested, in the initial directions, to comment to clarify some of the checked answers. Rather than depend on the respondent to keep in mind this original request, however, this researcher feels it is more efficient to provide a category, such as "other" or "comment" after each question. This alternative would especially appeal to those who find it frustrating to adhere to the preplanned options, and would also be a beneficial means of eliciting relevant information which has not yet been sufficiently tapped by the questionnaire. Besides Mouly's (1963) finding that scientifically oriented respondents dislike preplanned alternatives, Deutscher (1956) claimed that those with above-average intelligence and schooling rebel when asked to make stereotypical judgments.

Deciding exactly what choices should be provided as alternatives can be difficult. Generally speaking, Sellitz, Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook (1959) felt it was wiser to offer a scale of response alternatives rather than requesting dichotomous answers which could lead to unrealistic results. They felt that because the questionnaire is then perceived more favorably by the respondent, her/his answers will be more accurate and provide more detailed information. Rather than devising a scale, Good (1966) and Van Dalen (1962) felt that all that is necessary is a third alternative, such as "no definite feeling or conviction," "none of the above," or "doubtful." However, this reviewer fears that it would be too easy for some of the respondents to check that category rather than carefully weighing each alternative presented, and if too many claim to be "undecided," the study will have produced no results.

Even though the yes-and-no dichotomy sharply restricts the measurement of a wide span of opinion or factual data, this type of questionnaire is still used. In one case, Duncan (1968) sent a questionnaire to every marriage counselor, child guidance specialist, and psychologist listed in the yellow pages of the Florida telephone books. The questions were placed on a five by eight inch card which was return-addressed and stamped. The respondents were asked to list their professional affiliations, but all other queries could be answered merely by checking either yes or no. Duncan received a 67% response, and in a later discussion of nonresponse, this will be shown to be a good rate.

The wording of the alternatives is another factor which must be considered carefully. Besides being sure to phrase the questions simply, briefly, and clearly in terms ordinarily used by the population (Festinger & Katz, 1965; Van Dalen, 1962; Levine & Gordon, 1958-1959; Stephan & McCarthy, 1958), Freed (1964) discouraged employing vague terms such as "fairly," "sometimes," "usually," "perhaps," and "maybe." Instead, he suggested using decisive terminology, as do Best (1959) and Maccoby and Maccoby (1956) who warned that the adverbs "frequently," "occasionally," and "rarely," and the adjective "fair" mean different things to different people. However, even though it has been stated that both questions and alternatives should be exact in meaning, Goode and Hatt (1952) warned that if very precise responses are requested, a small error in retention becomes an appreciable deviation. Designing the alternatives certainly does not have to be a "no-win" proposition, but middle ground between looseness and rigid specificity must be followed. For multiple-choice responses there are usually three to five gradations, but no one states that it is not sometimes appropriate to use a greater number; however, it is also important to design answers which in no way overlap each other (Levine & Gordon, 1958-1959). Maccoby and Maccoby (1956) recommended stating in detail the time period, location, and context the researcher desires the subject to recall, and then either specifying all of the categories open to the respondent, or making none explicit.

Another difficulty of the closed question was studied by Holdaway (1971), who requested 1000 education undergraduates to complete a 10-item personal-values questionnaire. In order to determine whether different response patterns were associated with differences in the naming and placement of alternatives, he distributed 5 different instruments, each answered by 200 students and each differing only in the response categories which could be selected. Dissimilar distributions were indeed recorded, dependent on whether the "undecided" choice was the midpoint of the agreement-disagreement scale or was separated from that scale; 15.4% chose "undecided" when it occupied the middle position, but only 3.7% chose it when it sat to the far right of the scale. This difference, significant at the .001 level, showed that the placement of "undecided" has a strong effect on the responses. Regarding this aspect of the study, Holdaway concluded that the use of "undecided" off of the scale possessed little value, but still should be continued since it did provide a choice for those who feel this category best describes their feeling. This investigator feels it should definitely not be the middle choice, since then too little data is likely to be obtained.

In this same study, Holdaway (1971) also found that whether he labelled the midpoint "undecided" or "neutral" affected the response pattern, mainly because of the problems related to the neutral point. This response is really a self-contradictory one since it signifies the fact that the subject is willing to respond, but has no opinion regarding the question. He also found that his subjects were more willing to choose extreme positions when they were not labelled with a "strongly" modifier.

Another difficulty inherent in the closed questions is the possibility that the respondent has checked answers randomly, without even reading the questions. Peterson (1961) stated that this is a problem to which most senders of questionnaires usually give little attention, but he does suggest including blind check items. Even though others have argued that the responses are voluntary, he felt that there is no evidence to prove that the questionnaires were really taken seriously. This reviewer, however, would worry that the advantages provided by blind check items would be reduced by the antagonism, and increasing nonresponse, which these either irrelevant or repetitious questions caused.

Festinger and Katz's (1965) description of the closed question serves as a compact summary.

> Generally speaking, the closed question is well adapted to situations in which (1) there is only one frame of reference from which the respondent can answer the question; (2) within this single frame of reference, there is a known range of possible responses; and (3) within this range there are clearly defined choice points which accurately represent the position of each respondent (p.351).

However, since all situations do not fit into the above category, or even if they do, the researcher may decide not to design closed questions, other forms can be employed. Falthzik and Carroll (1971) suggested that the open-ended question should be employed first to establish the important alternatives and then these should be presented as the categories of the closed question. Their suggestion, however, would involve even more pretesting, and the researcher could probably define the necessary alternatives without this process. Another case in which a combination of the two types of questions can be used was suggested by Peach (1972), Backstrum and Hursh (1963), and Goode and Hatt (1952). They recommended that even additional information will be returned when open-ended questions follow those of the closed variety. In this way, the respondent will feel as if she/he is allowed to express herself/himself spontaneously and will not feel as confined by the closed questions. The respondent is less likely to feel the frustration of having words forced into her/his mouth and will then be more effective in detailing her/his personal definition of the situation. Goode and Hatt (1952) stated that allowing for more space than seems necessary is a stimulus for the respondent to answer this type of query more fully. Another encouraging aspect of this type of question is that its wording and phrasing is usually similar to that used in day-to-day conversation and this could encourage both spontaneity and a desire to communicate clearly and fully.

Certainly, free-response questions can also be the sole type used in a questionnaire. Because structured questions lose a great amount of the intensity and color of the respondent's feelings, the open-ended question could be very advantageous either when the researcher expects a wide range of replies or when not too informed regarding the type of answer a particular question will elicit. This latter alternative, though, should not be a problem if the researcher has studied the entire problem both carefully and intensely.

Besides the probability of reducing the overall response rate, Peach (1972) and Backstrum and Hursh (1963) discussed other problems inherent in the use of the open-ended question. Besides demanding a fairly great amount of room in the form, their analysis is a very difficult task, and this type of question is not an easy one to treat statistically. In order to interpret all of the comments it is certainly essential to formulate a group of categories which will include the entire range of responses. As each classification is formulated, however, a synthesis is taking place. Whether open or closed questions are part of the instrument, Goode and Hatt (1952) claimed that any question which is refused by more than five percent of the population should be restudied.

The reliability and validity of each question and the questions as a whole is another problem with which the researcher must contend. To prove the value of the study to the respondent and of course to make the study itself worthwhile, the questionnaire must have content validity (Festinger & Katz, 1965; Mouly, 1963); each question should be related to the subject being studied, and the overall topic must be covered adequately. Back (1962) stated that a questionnaire is more reliable if each question does not carry all of the information for which it is capable, but instead is grouped with a set of queries which carry all of the information. This is similar to Festinger and Katz's suggestion that each question should be limited to only one idea or reference. This means, then, that the researcher should combine a number of the questions with similar intent in a rational manner so that the desired material will be elicited. Goode and Hatt (1952) summed up the preceding discussion well when they wrote: "The formulation of good questions is a much more subtle and frustrating task than is generally believed by those who have not actually attempted it" (p.132).

Questionnaire Length

At the same time the researcher is formulating the questions and deciding whether to use the closed and/or open format, she/he should not forget that most of the research supports the short questionnaire. Mouly (1963) claimed that "...brevity is not important in itself, but as a means of removing superfluous items and thus improving the overall quality of the instrument" (p.258). This is probably only part of the reasoning behind keeping questionnaires short, however, since the tolerance of the respondent must be kept in mind. As a result of the many studies regarding the length of the questionnaire, some (Leslie, 1970; Goode & Hatt, 1952) have stated unequivocally that the shorter the instrument, the better. The usual reasoning espoused for mailing a short form is that more are then likely to be returned, and it should be noted that "short" usually signifies either one or two pages. As a rather extreme example, Stanton (1939) received a 28% response to a 3-page questionnaire, and a 50% response to a post card carrying a single question. Bauer and Meissner (1963) found it disadvantageous to use a 2-page questionnaire instead of a 1-page form. In their measurement of economic indicators, they found that their group of managers wrote more nonsense answers when the questionnaire was lengthened from 1 page to 2, and this was significant at the 5% level of confidence, as was the fact that the propotion of exactly correct responses decreased. The number of unanswered questions, insignificant with the 1-page form, also increased greatly when 2 pages were sent. This agrees with Jackson and Rothney's (1961) finding that the length of the instrument effects the number of completed questions; in sending out a 4-page questionnaire, they found a significant decrease in the proportion of responses for each subsequent page.

Another way of measuring the questionnaire's length, and probably more relevant to the respondent, is the time necessary to complete the form. Goode and Hatt (1952) felt that it is generally unwise to look forward to returns from a questionnaire which takes much more than 25 minutes, But Gleazer (1970) has experienced the situation where a hopeful researcher requests "only 15 minutes of your time," and really demands more if the instrument is to be completed carefully. This reviewer speculates that this might possibly have been part of Hill's (1967) problem, as he surveyed the 2300 ACES (Association for Counselor Education and Supervision) members and received less than a one-third response. His 10 minute checklist dealt with the standards for counselor education, a topic of concern to many counselors, so this researcher feels he may have misjudged the time required for his form. Of course, there also could have been other difficulties, and since he did not report the checklist itself, it is impossible to judge.

Citing contradictory evidence, however, are those who feel that the researcher does not have to attempt to ask as few questions as possible. In a study regarding smoking, Sirken, Pifer, and Brown (1960) mailed a questionnaire to those attending physicians named on death certificates. Their short form resulted in a significantly greater initial return than the longer version, but the final response rate was not significantly different for the long and short forms. In other studies of the effect of seeking additional information, Clausen and Ford (1947) found that one or two pages of supplemental queries did not change the response rate, and Sletto (1940), when dealing with university alumni, received similar response rates for both a 10 and a 25 page form. It is not reported what this rate was, however, and it could very probably be as low as the 29.9% Leslie (1970) reported for a long questionnaire mailed to professionals in colleges. Even with this poor initial return, though, after 3 more mailings the response rate had achieved the 100% mark. Havemann and West (1952) did not carry their study as far, but they were also dealing with college graduates and sent 17,053 of them 13 page instruments. They received a 36.2% reply to their initial mailing, and after 1 follow-up had 59.1% of the total questionnaires. In addition, 1.4% wrote, refusing to complete the form.

Instructions

The instructions are another aspect of the questionnaire with which the researcher must be concerned as both their appearance and content are important. Both Rummel (1958) and Nixon (1954) stated that they should stand out, either by the use of heavy, distinctive lettering, capital letters, italics, or underlining. Even though they should be as brief as possible, they must also be clear, and Thomas (1964) claimed this is one of the variables encouraging the respondent to complete the form. Another possible difficulty to try to avoid is that the directions could be so hard for the potential respondent that she/he loses interest and pays no attention to them.

Information

Now that both the cover letter and questionnaire are complete, the researcher should check to see that a few details about herself/himself are included. The questionnaire itself should also contain the name of the person responsible for the study and that person's address or the address to which the form is supposed to be sent. In order for the researcher to be the recipient of valid responses, she/he must be seen as upstanding and accesible.

Return Envelope

Besides mailing a cover letter and questionnaire, the researcher should also enclose a postage free return envelope, another element which has also undergone much study, and without which a low rate of return should be anticipated. As no study is reported that measured the return rate of questionnaires accompanied by return envelopes versus those relying on the respondents to initiate this task, it can be seen that mailing one is standard. The question then becomes one of deciding what type of postage, on these envelopes one standard measure smaller than the sending ones, results in the greatest percentage of responses.

Levine and Gordon (1958-1959) recommended affixing air mail, special delivery stamps to both the return and outgoing envelopes. Their feeling was that this method urges the potential respondent to return the questionnaire since she/he can see how consequential the researcher feels the questionnaire is. They stated that this technique maximizes responses, but they provided no proof.

Many others (Ford, 1968; Simon, 1967; Nixon, 1954; Goode & Hatt, 1952) either merely suggested a stamped return envelope or favored it over business reply mailings, but like Levine and Gordon (1958-1959), they cited no specific examples. Kephart and Bressler (1958), in experimenting with inducement factors, did mention that they considered using either metered mail or business-type stamped-return envelopes, but they chose instead to affix an individual stamp to each of the envelopes. Their initial mailing and follow-up did result in more than 65% response, but of course this was not due only to the stamps.

In a survey of those who had been Fulbright Smith-Mundt grantees, Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) stated that "...stamped return envelopes were significantly more effective than business-reply enclosures ($p<.01$)" (p.295). A large proportion of their subjects were on the faculty at different colleges and the researchers felt that the stamped return envelope elicited within them a sense of obligation; it may have dissociated the sponsoring organization from one carrying on a selling campaign, as commercial stamping is often associated with mailed adverisements.

Other studies (Snelling, 1969; Tallent & Reiss, 1959) also mentioned the inclusion of this type of envelope, but it was one of their constant variables. Plog (1963), however, credited the inclusion of the self-addressed, postage free envelope with his 98% response to his survey mailed those who had written letters to the Boston Herald. He felt that this envelope aided the respondent's cooperation, as she/he was not asked to do this task. This reviewer feels, however, that the high reply rate is probably more a factor of the population involved, a group already used to expressing themselves.

Now that everything is ready to be sent, the details of the mailing require the researcher's attention. Among the topics to be considered are the envelope itself, the type of postage, and the time of arrival of the material.

No studies have been reported where variations were attempted on the style of the outgoing envelope itself, and it seems that most suggested using a plain one of standard size and placing the return address in the upper left hand corner. Usually the researcher's name would be in the return address position, but Snelling (1969) substituted the name of a faculty member who knew the recipient and then proceeded to add the name and address of the college. In their study of the alumni of a professional fraternity, Weilbacher and Walsh (1952) desired that their recipients be completely neutral before they viewed the questionnaire, so their envelope contained no reference to the sponsoring fraternity. The potential respondent's name should appear in the same form as it does in the cover letter, and Snelling mentioned typing his while Mann (1959) addressed by hand each of the ones she mailed to 500 graduates of the University of Wisconsin. She was very careful of her handwriting and made every attempt to send a neat envelope; unfortunately, she did not report her results, and even if she did it would be difficult to know what percentage of the results were due to this particular effort.

Postage

Unlike the envelope, many studies have been conducted to attempt to ascertain the effect different postage has on the response. Snelling (1969) felt that even the postmark carries some influence, and he mailed his forms from college post offices. He also affixed the stamps by hand, and Champion and Sear (1969) claimed that, because of its personalized nature, this led to a greater response than those which were machine printed.

Simon (1967) stated that the use of first-class postage results in a greater response than third-class, but that is now relevant only for historical interest as letters can no longer be sent third class. Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) confirmed this statement with their finding that instruments sent first class were returned significantly more often ($p < .02$) than those sent third class. They felt that first class postage is worth the added expense, as it emphasizes the importance of the study, and Wilcox (1965) generalized this even further by stating that most middle-class subjects are already in the habit of responding to first-class mail.

Whether to use postage more expensive than regular is still very relevant, and this has been the topic of much study. After reviewing some of the past findings and then conducting a survey of their own, Champion and Sear (1969) stated that in the usual cases, more expensive postage results in a larger percentage of returns. Ford (1968) was more specific in his recommendations, claiming that air mail questionnaires are returned more frequently than those sent via regular postage; unfortunately, however, he quoted no proof while Kephart and Bressler (1958), in a study, one aspect of which dealt with the effect of altering the denominations of the stamps, came to a different conclusion. Even though more of their air mail instruments were returned, the result was not significant at the .05 level of confidence, and therefore not worthy of the additional expense. These same researchers, however, did find that the use of special delivery stamps was statistically significant when compared to those bearing regular postage, and similar results are discussed in the section dealing with the postage selected for follow-ups.

Besides experimenting with more expensive postage, studies have also been conducted to assess the effect of varying the color and/or denominations (but still equalling the price of first class) of the stamps. Roeher (1963) claimed that more responses will be forthcoming if small-denomination stamps of different colors are affixed to the envelope, and he assumed this results since the respondent attaches a sense of personal interest to the idea. In studying the degree of sharing in marriage relationships, Langworth (1953) employed the same technique, but for different reasons. After learning of Mayer's advice that blue, red, brown, green, and black are the order of color appeal in postage stamps, he proceeded to place a one cent, a two cent, and a three cent stamp on each envelope. He was hopeful that the respondent would either especially notice the expense of the mailing or at least have her/his attention drawn to this envelope, and therefore become more interested in the instrument itself. He claimed that this procedure did increase the responses by two percentage points, but he did not provide information as to whether this was significant. If a small number of questionnaires were sent, this extra bother hardly seems worth the trouble.

Timing

Those asked to respond to questionnaires do not always have the time to do so, and even though Mouly (1963) stated that the time of the form's arrival is important only if the standing of the study is already weak, others felt that the time at which the measurement process is executed is indeed important. Lundberg (1953) advised mailing all of the forms simultaneously so that one or two recipients do not become suspicious that they were selected for a special examination. He felt that the questionnaires should arrive at the respondents' homes Friday evening or Saturday morning, and then the forms will receive immediate attention during the weekend. This researcher, however, would be more inclined to agree with Leslie (1970) and Longworth (1953) who stated that response rates are greater if the forms appear either Thursday afternoon or early Friday. They stated that the respondents are then more likely to answer, as they will be cleaning their desks and completing unfinished tasks.

Besides considering the day of the week, the time of the year is also important. It seems logical that most researchers would avoid unusually busy periods such as test-taking time, the beginning or ending days of school, and holidays. Even though her forms probably did not arrive exactly as school opened, Mann (1959) timed hers near to that date. Unfortunately, she did not report her results, but her reasoning was as follows: "For Americans everywhere, and especially for college graduates, September is a month of new beginnings; it was felt that this month was the psychologically best time to greet alumni with an eight-page questionnaire" (p.171). In a controlled study examining the optimal season in which to attempt such measurements, Thomas (1964) found that public school administrators honor original summer requests as well as they do those mailed in the winter, but the latter are returned somewhat more quickly. In light of the above studies, it seems that the researcher would be wise to employ some common sense together with the practicality of when she/he needs, and is ready to collect, the data.

Population

Although the study might not permit the researcher to decide in which season of the year she/he will send out the forms, Russell and Kaluzny (1970) felt it would be beneficial if the geographic location of the potential respondents could be previously defined. They received the greatest proportion of responses from those living within the region nearest the site of the study, but as the distance increased, there was less effect on the differences in the response rate. Regarding the speed of the returns, those either nearest or furthest were the slowest. This investigator certainly would not recommend selecting the population by such criteria, but as Stephan and McCarthy (1958) pointed out: "The operational decisions about the definition of the population flow not from what will be desired in the analysis, but from what is feasible or what is convenient in conducting the survey" (p.347). This is certainly more likely when an interview study is used, but it is a real possibility when a questionnaire is the primary tool. The above experimenters then proceeded to divide the choice of the subject population into two classes.

> We may recognize two broad classes of selection techniques: (1) those techniques that are independent of the particular setup of the population in the sense that the selection can be made in advance by a means that is essentially a selection of certain places or positions out of all the possible places an individual may occupy, and (2) those techniques that depend to some extent on individual characteristics of the persons in the population or at least some sorting of individuals as they are actually assigned to or fall into their places in the setup (p.113).

Of course, the final determination as to selection is dependent on the variables being studied, and it seems more beneficial to include persons for the substantive reason that they are members of the category which is relevant to the examination's purpose.

Wording

After the population and the optimal time have been chosen, the respondents will receive the questionnaires and proceed to place their own interpretations on them. It is vital that the questions are phrased in such a way so that the subject does not either misinterpret them or decide to answer evasively, erroneously, or not at all. Unfortunately, it can never be taken for granted that the same grouping of words has a universal meaning among the members of any certain group. It is always hoped, though, that the wording is conducive to an exact completion of the instrument, since errors in interpretation are only one of the many possible sources of errors. This, of course, is a difficulty inherent in the use of the self-administered questionnaire, as the errors of the respondent are indeed recorded as final statements. In fact, Goode and Hatt (1952) claimed "...the questionnaire is effective only when the respondent is able or willing to express his actions clearly" (p.171). On the one hand, the questionnaire allows the subject to provide more considered responses, but at the same time, the researcher cannot check on misunderstandings or incomplete replies.

Subject's State of Mind

Besides the interpretation placed directly on the questionnaire, the state of mind of the subject is also very important, especially since this factor has a direct bearing on the answers which will be provided. Many elements are included in this condition, including the time of arrival and the number of other responsibilities in the subject's life which compete with her/his completing the instrument. The priority given to this project will also be a result of the respondent's opinion of the usefulness of the study combined with the attitude she/he holds regarding the organization responsible for the study (Speak, 1964; Stephan & McCarthy, 1958). It is also detrimental, of course, if the subject has a negative attitude toward the subject of the investigation or views the questionnaire as an agonizing repetition of trivial questions. Withey (1960) and Goode and Hatt (1952) warned that there is no important reason why the motivation to fill out an unexpected questionnaire should be high, and no investigator is present to motivate the subject when she/he may be trying to decide whether to respond or refuse. Gleazer (1970) discussed the university president, harassed by the many demands on his time, who replied to a form by writing: "I regret the necessity of returning to you without its completion the questionnaire which you mailed to me some days ago.... We simply do not have adequate personnel to enable us to devote the necessary time to the completion of the great number of detailed questionnaires which are sent to us from time to time..." (p.171). It seems that it was particularly kind of this person to at least explain his nonresponse, but it is also hoped that this does not eventually become a standard answer to questionnaires.

The answers to specific questions are another area in which the subject's state of mind is important. For example, if a dichotomous question is almost unanimously answered the same way, the question may have elicited stereotyped thinking. When a 100% response is not received, Bennett and Hill (1964) claimed that a clue to the amount of bias can be ascertained by examining the amount of homogeneity of the population and finding that the nonrespondents are adequately heterogeneous. They, along with Donald (1960) felt that the subject is more likely to reply if she/he is successful and has a favorable report to make. Bennett and Hill stated, however, that personality bias due to nonresponse is not a problem worthy of the researcher's concern.

Nonresponse

Nonresponse, though, is a large problem in and of itself, as there is no assurance that one will receive a great number of returns, and if there is much nonresponse, the supposition that a random selection of the population is being dealt with is undermined (Kawash & Aleamoni, 1971). Bias is the difference between the actual mean of the population and the mean ascertained by averaging the estimated means of all of the samples, and this problem is very evident in questionnaire studies because their response rate is usually lower than for that of interviews. To avoid the problem of bias, Lansing and Eapen (1959) felt that missing information should absolutely not be discussed. Others did not go to that extreme, but there does not seem to be a great deal of agreement as to what percentage of response is necessary to assure that those not responding are not just a group who possess some particular characteristics which then are underrepresented in the final report. Response bias is not decreased by augmenting the size of the sample, and even a great proportion of questionnaires is not certain evidence that no bias is present in the sample. Snelling (1969) stated that bias is more likely to be a problem if less than 90% of the instruments are returned, and Bennett and Hill (1964) stated that while a 60% response to a mailed questionnaire was considered good, they felt at least 80% must be returned to eliminate most of the bias These same investigators also mentioned that some writers emphasized that every subject must reply in order to eliminate nonresponse bias in certain kinds of studies, such as those that follow-up high school graduates. This reviewer feels that it is the investigator's obligation to report the percentage of response, and then the reader can decide how much weight to apply to the findings.

Some researchers claimed that a definite segment of the population are superior respondents, and among those who reported differences, there is some agreement as to who can be expected not to reply. The group least likely to respond is composed of single men younger than 30 or older than 49 who habitually do not reply to correspondence and do not correspond as a part of their job. Most of these men have not received much education, and both their social status and income are low, as is their participation in community affairs. Not associated in any way with the organization sponsoring the study, these men are really not very interested in the areas under examination (Gannon, Northern, & Carroll, 1971; Pucel, Nelson, & Wheeler, 1971; Champion & Sear, 1969; Argyris, 1968; Eckland, 1968; Rosenau, 1964; Speak, 1964; Mouly, 1963; Donald, 1960; Wallace, 1954). Larson and Catton (1959) claimed that these differences can be ascertained by comparing the early and late returns, as their differences move in a direction similar to those of the repliers compared to the nonrepliers

As with most variables, however, the research on this one is not conclusive. When the population sampled is a narrow one, such as college graduates, the above differences disappear (Wallace, 1954 Similarly, in a study of student teachers at Ball State Teachers College, the respondents did not differ from the nonrespondents on either sex or intelligence (Bennett & Hill, 1964). This study also found no difference between respondents and nonrespondents when comparing psychological characteristics measured by the California Personality Inventory, and Robin (1965) felt that differences are important only in investigations specifically of psychological characteristics, opinions, or values. If the data Cope reported is correct, the problem of nonresponse may not be as significant as some have suggested, especially since Robin also claimed that nonresponse contributes no bias when the questionnaire is concerned with consumer preference and behavior. Herriott (1969) did not detail his reasoning, but he also stated that the problem of nonresponse is not as serious as it was previously thought to be.

In these discussions of the relative unimportance of nonresponse, it is assumed that a large percentage do return their instruments. Leslie (1970) claimed that a large number of investigations are not completed because of a deficient number of responses, although Gannon, Northern, and Carroll (1971), Herriott (1969), and Lehman (1963) stated that surveys often have a reply rate below 50%. The percentage of response seems to have improved since 1939, when Mitchell (1939) summarized 43 American mail surveys and reported response rates from .9%-80%, nearly half of which were below 10%. However, there are those who warned that a great deal of nonresponse is not a thing of the past, and if it truly is as great as the 75% reported by Robin (1965), Trainers (1964), and Stephan and McCarthy (1958) the results are almost surely biased.

While not reporting specific studies, others did claim that a more successful response rate is usual. The range of nonresponse seems to be from as little as none at all to the large numbers spoken of above and even rarely as great as 95% (Peach, 197 Leslie, 1970; Herriott, 1969; Bennett & Hill, 1964; Plog, 1963; Withey, 1960; Carter, 1958; Stephan & McCarthy, 1958; Young, 1956; Wallace, 1954). Those who reported specific studies, whose response rates are not reported elsewhere in this paper, reported nonresponse rates from as little as 2% to as great as 79% with an average rate of about 33%. In all likelihood, many studies with response rates of less than 30% are not reported, as their credibility would certainly be questioned. If different nonresponse rates were reported after follow-ups, these numbers are not included, as follow-up studies will be discussed later. It is interesting to note that in those studies reporting nonresponse rates of less than 30% (Frantz, 1969; Snelling, 1969; Simon, 1967; Pruitt, 1966; Plog, 1963; Brigante, Haefner, & Woodson, 1962; Granger, 1959; Roland, 1953), most sampled only a small group of professionals, many of whom were employed in academia. In contrast, randomly selected citizens comprise a large portion of the group that responded less than 70% of the time (Pride, 1972; Hochstein & Athanasopoulos, 1970; Champion & Sear, 1969; Ford, 1968; Linsky, 1965; Coyle, 1962; Donald, 1960; Mann, 1959; Kephart & Bressler, 1958; Wallace, 1954). The findings of this reviewer can be compared with those of Snelling (1969), who found that out of 59 investigations the mean percentage of returns was 80.7. The low nonresponse rate of 19.3% is very likely a result of the fact that these studies were relatively small, leading this investigator to suspect that a select sample was questioned. In a survey of 36 investigations using questionnaires to contact administrators, Thomas (1964) found the rate of response ranged from 32-96%. He reported a median of 26.5% nonresponse, while this reviewer found the median of the surveyed studies to be 29%, the latter probably being higher since varied populations are included. Thomas' study spanned the period 1952-1963, and it is hoped that by now both the methodology and the response rates have improved.

Follow-up

If the follow-up procedures have not been considered when the study is formulated, after a certain number of responses are received, whether to initiate them must be decided. Roeher (1963) reported the following discouraging finding: "Differential conclusions are presented regarding the effectiveness of reminders or follow-up letters to nonrespondents" (p.300). Among those who claimed that follow-up efforts do increase returns are Snelling (1969), Ford (1968), Good (1966), and Levine and Gordon (1958-1959). In developing a comprehensive plan, it would be advantageous if the investigator had previously established a tentative time schedule for the follow-ups. Different researchers suggested allowing different time periods to elapse before mailing the first follow-up letter, but the range seems to be from 11 to 28 days (Leslie, 1970; Snelling, 1969; Kephart & Bressler, 1958; Nixon, 1954). Instead of a specific time period, Lundberg (1953) recommended waiting until the returns begin coming in at a definitely slower rate and Good (1966) simply suggested not to wait too long. Thomas (1964) found that follow-up letters were more productive in the winter than in the summer (when dealing with an academic environment) so this factor may want to be kept in mind as the study is designed.

Although this reviewer discovered no researchers who claimed that follow-ups were ineffective, Wilcox (1965) mentioned its great expense, and Ford (1968) warned that the economic advantage of a mail survey disappears when numerous follow-up contacts must be made. Therefore, it is vital that the researchers devise a plan to tap many of the 20-40%, the usual number who do not originally reply (Eckland, 1968). Donald (1960) recommended using a procedure that makes it clear to the respondent that she/he will be fulfilling a personal goal by returning the instrument. This, however, appeared to be a very idealistic hope, and it seems more logical and straightforward merely to explain to the nonrespondent that you are aware of how busy she/he is, and also to urge a reply. To add to your understanding of the mounds of papers she/he receives, it could also be mentioned that you know the nonrespondent may have misplaced the original form, and a second one is enclosed. It also seems wise to remind the subject how important each completed questionnaire is to the research and possibly to explain a little more regarding the area under study. If the researcher has truly received a favorable return, this can be reported in the hope that it will convince the subject that her/his time will not be wasted, and the study will indeed be concluded.

Once it is decided that the researcher is going to send something following the original questionnaire, she/he must decide exactly what is to be sent. In a study of 88,000 Project Talent high school students, Orr and Neyman (1965) sent reminders after both the first and second wave of questionnaires. Unfortunately, these had no significant effect as compared to sending new copies of the questionnaire, and the authors suggested that where there is a small cost differential between mailing a reminder and a new questionnaire, the latter method should be chosen. Nixon (1954) also suggested sending an attractive letter besides the additional copy of the questionnaire, and Snelling (1969) and Good (1966) felt it may be beneficial to make this letter personal by individually writing and signing it. The former did mail his follow-up on college stationery, with the air mail special delivery letter bearing the signature of the university president. Mann (1959) mailed a mimeographed follow-up bearing a handwritten signature appearing on University bond stationery, and this increased the return from 62 to 79%.

What type of postage to use on the follow-ups is another decision that must be made by the researcher. Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) reported "...a significantly greater proportion (62 per cent) of the grantees who received their questionnaires special delivery responded to this follow-up than did those who received questionnaires via regular mail ($p < .001$). Only 35 per cent of the latter group responded" (p.120). Therefore, they concluded that the special-delivery follow-up is worth the additional cost, especially in deriving replies from subjects who have acknowledged no previous questionnaires. When discussing postage, Champion and Sear (1969) also claimed that the 20% greater response they received with special delivery follow-ups was definitely worth the expense.

The advantage of using certified mail does not seem to be quite so clear-cut. Since Eckland (1968) combined his responses to those sent via certified mail with those of telephone follow-up, and since the latter group far outnumbered the former, it is difficult to know how much of his 94% response was due to this special postage. Wilcox (1965) did not cite specific numbers, but she found that even letters sent by certified or registered mail accompanied by a "return receipt" request are given no attention, (or at least are not returned). Orr and Neyman (1965) also did not cite numbers, but they claimed that although air mail postage does help, there is not much difference in response rates due to different postal treatments. The conclusion to be drawn from the small number of studies on follow-up postal treatment seems to be that special delivery may well be worth the added expense, possibly after one regularly mailed follow-up has been ignored.

Also indirectly related to the type of postal treatment selected, is the option of mailing postal cards as a reminder. Roeher (1963) advised against it, as he found it to be completely ineffective in one study in which it was employed. Good (1966) viewed the post card in a somewhat different manner. Instead of replacing the follow-up, he felt it was worth sending, and then, shortly, the entire questionnaire was mailed again. With the cost of postage rising, it is not too evident that the post card is really worth this expense.

Either instead of or in addition to mailing supplementary forms, telephone calls to nonrespondents have also been reported to be very effective (Snelling, 1969; Roeher, 1963; Levine & Gordon, 1958-1959). In her 1956 survey of members of the League of Women Voters mentioned earlier, Donald (1960) increased her initial response rate of 46.2% to 77.3% after she used an additional letter and phone call.

Leslie (1970) claimed that over 80% of all of the replies to be obtained are collected from the first mailing, but follow-ups usually do add significant numbers to the study. Kephart and Bressler (1958) felt that their follow-up was truly successful, causing an increase in their returns of 16 percentage points. This is not quite as beneficial as the 20 to 30% increase in response predicted by Robin (1965) after the first follow-up. From studying pervious surveys, he also predicted that the second follow-up will be answered by another 9 to 12% of the subjects. Regarding final numbers, it seems that after the follow-ups are completed, a final return of about 80% can be expected.

PhD career Studies

A brief review of literature regarding the careers of those with PhDs in counseling and/or education was also executed. Articles appearing in Educational Review during the years 1963-1972 were studied, but unfortunately, very little research has been published on this topic.

The most comprehensive study was undertaken in 1962 by Peterson and Featherstone, who studied the occupations of 337 graduates of 25 counseling psychology programs approved in 1960 by the American Psychological Association. Of the total for which information was available (292), the largest percentage were counseling psychologists, 15% at colleges and universities and another 11% at Veterans' Administration Hospitals. Another 2% counselled in industry, general hospitals or another setting which the authors were unable to ascertain. Combining these groups, counseling psychologists form 28% of the total studied.

The next largest group of graduates was those teaching in a college or university, comprising 24% of the sample. Those directing a program comprised 20% of the 292, with the breakdown as follows:

student personnel services	5%
college/university counseling and/or testing service	5%
state/national agency and armed services	2%
public education	2%
research program	1%
personnel in industry	1%
private agency	<1% (n=2)
hospital psychological services	<1% (n=2)
child service	<1% (n=1)
training in industry	<1% (n=1)
rehabilitation services in hospital	<1% (n=1)

Another 8% of the subjects were psychologists, but their specialty was not indicated. Forming this group were the 2% each employed in industry, public education, and a hospital other than a VA. A clinic was the setting for 1% of these respondents, and less than 1% were psychologists in either VAs or child services.

Research psychologists accounted for 7% of those studied, 2% each employed by state or national agencies including the armed services or colleges and universities. Research programs and industry each accounted for the employment of another 1%, and less than 1% held positions with either children's services or VAs.

Although these people had received degrees in counseling psychology, 6% were working as clinical psychologists in diverse locations, the majority at a VA (2%) or a college or university (1%). Industrial consultants comprised 3% of the group, and for another 3% information as to position was not available, although it was to setting. For 13% of the 337, the authors gleaned no information regarding either their position or setting. As can be seen from the reporting of the figures, this latter group was not included for the purposes of computing the other percentages.

The numbers are more dramatic when the percentages of the 292 graduates employed in each setting are presented. Colleges and universities employ 53% of them, VA Hospitals 15%, industry 8%, state or national agencies and the armed services 6%, hospitals other than VAs 5%, and 4% were involved in public education.

One of the few other well-documented studies was unfortunately not as limited as the above one, but even so the results are somewhat similar. In a study of 743 people who were granted either PhD or EdD degrees between 1964 and 1967 from Pennsylvania State University ("Postdoctoral Employment," 1968), 45% joined college or university staffs, 19.1% went into industry, 8.9% were employed by school systems as teachers, administrators, or researchers, 6.5% gained civilian government positions, and 5.4% continued their education for postdoctoral studies. Most of the remainder were working either for the militart, social or educational agencies, or for themselves. It is interesting that so many of these graduates remained in some type of educational system, even though they took their degrees in many fields. The only relevant breakdown supplied is the fact that 66.8% who received PhDs in education became either college teachers, administrators, or researchers.

Although not citing any proof, Super (1962) reported that almost 75% of counseling psychologists either teach, direct services (and possibly counsel), or counsel, which more than 25% of these do. Maul (1965) also stated that of a class of PhDs 48.4% became teachers in colleges or universities, and he added that one-third of all PhD recipients in 1955-1956 entered their primary occupations prior to the year they graduated. Super also claimed that very few of those trained in counseling psychology engage in research, a finding borne out in Peterson and

Featherstone's (1962) study. Similar to the latter, Super also commented that private practice is not the major activity for most, and he claimed that 75%, a few more than previously reported, are employed by colleges, universities, and hospitals. Yamamoto (1963) also stated that few counseling psychologists have set up a private practice, but he did claim that not many are employed in medical settings. This discrepancy has occurred because he surveyed 1016 members of the APA Division 17 (counseling psychology), as opposed to studying all recent graduates, and studies based on group membership will be discussed next, as they offer additional information regarding the employment of graduate counselors.

In this perviously mentioned study of Yamamoto's (1963), where his population was based on the 1961 APA Directory, he found that 82% of his sample had received doctors' degrees, and more than half of those who replied were currently employed at colleges and universities. Yamamoto further distinguished those in college settings by describing their field. Of the 1016 members, 54.6% were in university settings, this comprised of the 26.8% in the academic area (i.e. professors); 15.6% in academic administration (i.e. dean of men); 7.7% in administration (i.e. directors); and 4.5% working in non-administrative, non-academic fields (i.e. psychologist, counselor).

Whereas higher education accounts for the employment of 54.6% of the total, the other half of the respondents were scattered in diverse fields, with the next largest group the 8.5% working in VA Hospitals and regional offices. Another reason that it is difficult to make exact comparisons between this study and those of others is the fact that each researcher defines her/his categories somewhat differently. Yamamoto's (1963) next largest group were the 8.0% employed by schools, but in here he included those working in junior colleges, so his percentage of those in higher education could conceivably be even a little greater.

It seems that these members of the APA had secured employment in a field not yet reached by Peterson and Featherstone's (1962) respondents, as 7.2% were employed by private psychological services, such as test publishers. Actually, since this title is so vague, it very well could include those in research, clinics, and children's services--groups which do not seem to be accounted for anywhere else in this survey.

As the percentages decrease even more, the job settings naturally become more diverse. Those employed by the government, excluding the armed forces, and those in private practice each accounted for another 4.6% (9.2% of the total). Three per cent were associated with consulting firms, 2.9% with business and industry, 1.4% with the armed forces, including schools and hospitals, and .8% with national professional groups. No job description was given for 2.8% of the sample, but even so it is interesting to note that there is quite a bit of similarity in locales among recent graduates and a group whose median age was 48, so had very likely been practicing for about 15 to 20 years.

One of the factors that may have biased Yamamoto's (1963) study is the type of counseling psychologist who chooses to join the APA. Brammer (1968) reported that 75% of higher education counseling center directors, who are usually involved also with counselor education, belong to either APA or APGA. On the other hand, Pruitt's (1966) sample of American College Personnel Association members shows that only a fraction are also members of APA. Since Coyle (1962) surveyed a random group of ACPA members and found that 12% were counseling, 24% were counseling directors, and another 20% were teaching either psychology, education, or counseling, it seems logical to assume that higher education could very well have been under-represented in Yamamoto's (1963) findings. Coyle's (1962) findings, however, seem to contradict the finding by Correll (1962) that numerous younger student personnel workers feel, due to their experiences, that their counseling psychology training, was of inconsequential practical use. Although only 39% of this sample had received doctorates, Coyle stated that about 83% of the entire ACPA members are employed by colleges.

Another method of ascertaining the employment of counseling graduates is by researching the job movement of those likely to have received degrees either in counseling or in another related field, since so few studies do exist. In surveying 207 placement directors, Calvert and Menke (1967) reported that 37% belong to APGA, showing a substantial guidance orientation. In this same article, these men reported the prior experience of 632 placement directors, 18%

of whom hold PhDs. All past jobs were included, which is why the percentages add up to more than 100. Sixty-one per cent of the group had been involved in university teaching or administration, 53% had had business experience, 47% were previously either elementary or secondary school teachers or administrators, and 43% had been involved in active duty military service. This latter figure, rather than indicating voluntary job movement, probably indicates more about the sex and the age of the group. Those experiencing college placement work in a subordinate capacity in the same office numbered 21%, 19% had had social service or young adult work experience, 18% had been employed by another office in college placement, and another 18% had had government experience. It is difficult to compare these figures with those of known counseling graduates, but it is interesting to note that a much larger group worked for both business and the government.

Although not studying PhD graduates, Phillips (1969) surveyed 3837 elementary counselors and found that the majority had previously taught in the kindergarten through sixth grade. This should meet with Hoyt's (1961) approval, as he believed that counselors should definitely possess teaching certificates, moving into that field from the ranks of the superior teachers. He felt that this valid teaching credential, combined with demonstrated successful teaching experience, produces a professional career commitment which the school has the right to expect of counselors. A more general statement to this effect was purported by Duncan (1968) who said that the decade of the 60's witnessed the emergence of counselors from a group of people who were already involved in some way with education. This progression up the career ladder, besides receiving approval from Hoyt, has led to criticism from others (Miller, 1970; Super, 1964) who believed that many teachers move into counseling either to escape hectic classrooms or to be next in line when a vacancy occurs in administration. It is interesting to note that this criticism persists, yet few studies have actually been published regarding the career patterns of school counselors. In fact, in a study of 121 members of the Headmasters Association, Lloyd (1968) did not even mention counselors, stating that most often teaching led directly to a principalship.

Maul (1965) reported that moving from any graduate field immediately into college teaching is fairly common, as this was the pattern followed by not quite one-half of 1964-1965's new professors. Although no fields are specifically delineated, there seems to be no reason to believe that those in the field of counseling behave any differently.

In studying a group of 136 junior college administrators, Roland (1953) reported findings similar to those of Lloyd's (1968) regarding principals. Roland's executives had served the colleges, previously especially as teachers. Seventy per cent had taught in secondary schools and 19% in elementary schools. Forty-three per cent of this group did have doctorates, but again no mention is made that any of these people had specifically been counselors.

Hawk (1960) presented somewhat more detailed findings in his study of the previous professional experiences of 162 Community-Junior College Executives, and he did find that 22.7% had had junior college guidance/counseling responsibility, and 7.9% had been involved in high school counseling programs. The majority of his respondents (60.2%) had been employed in some junior college administrative postion. Since he counted all of the previous professional jobs, his figures add up to more than 100%. His sample is much more educationally oriented than the others which have been reported, 43.1% having had high school administration responsibility, 40.9% involved in high school teaching, 34.0% in college teaching, 31.8% in junior college teaching, 23.8% as superintendent of schools, 17.0% in college administration, 15.9% as either grade school or junior high school teachers, and 11.3% involved in elementary or junior high school administration. Compared with other studies, a slightly greater percentage of his respondents (6.8) had been in business or industry, and the same figure had been associated with the clergy. This latter finding is somewhat different from other studies, but it may very well be a result of the type of junior colleges surveyed. Since Hawk did not define his categories, if one can reasonable surmise that the 13.6%

who had been involved with military and government administration include those employed by VA Hospitals, this finding is quite similar to those of others.

Schultz (1965) also surveyed junior college executives, but he narrowed his categories to presidents and also to their last previous positions. His group consisted of the 188 junior college presidents appointed for the 1963-1964 school year, and Schultz found that 53.2% of his group had received doctorates, whereas only 43.8% of Hawk's (1960) sample had. This is most likely because Schultz's respondents were in more responsible positions, and also because his study occurred three years after Hawk's. Even though this time difference is minimal, each year sees more and more PhDs available for the professional openings. As evidence of this, of the presidents in Hawk's study appointed more than five years ago (i.e. before 1955), only 33.7% held doctorates, while 59.4% of those appointed in 1956-1960 had earned this degree. Cartter (1965) also reported that in the 1953-1954 school year 40.5% of the full-time college teachers had PhDs, but by the 1962-1963 year, this figure jumped to 50.6%. Similar to the findings of Hawk, Schultz found that 83.5% of the junior college presidents came directly from educational administration positions, 13.8% previously employed as presidents of colleges, 52.1% in other college administration jobs, 17.5% moving from elementary or secondary education, and 2.1% involved in religious work.

In a similar, but earlier, study Gleazer (Hawk, 1960--no primary reference provided) surveyed 378 presidents of junior colleges, only 35.7% of whom had received PhDs. The previous positions of his respondents were quite like those of Schultz's (1965) 13.5% coming from higher education positions and 20.9% employed previously by the public schools. Gleazer proceeded one step further and examined the position secured by 151 junior college presidents after leaving their presidency. The majority of those who remained actively employed stayed in education, discounting the 27.1% who retired. Those accepting another presidency accounted for 11.9% of the group, 9.9% became administrators in 4-year colleges and 9.3% in public schools, 8.6% entered a private business, 7.3% joined either a government agency or a foundation, another 7.3% died, 6.6% became teachers in 4-year colleges, 5.3% secured another junior college job, 4.0% took a position in the ministry, and 2.7% returned to graduate school.

Although these studies do not deal specifically with graduates of counseling and student personnel psychology programs, it is assumed that the fields are somewhat close, so general comparisons can be made. It is also interesting to note that whether the career patterns of graduates, association members, or specific professional jobholders are studies, the basic pattern of most working in higher education is quite evident.

Career Patterns of University of Minnesota Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology Graduates

The purpose of this paper is to report the career patterns of those people with concentrations in counseling and student personnel psychology who received PhDs in educational psychology from the University of Minnesota. The questions studied were:

1. Is there a relationship between a person's adviser and her/his first job?

2. Is there a relationship between a person's college employment or internship and her/his present employment?

3. Is there a relationship between a person's dissertation and her/his first job?

4. In what way are a person's series of jobs related? (i.e. always public schools, always teaching, always within a college system.)
   a. Do people most often move from job to job horizontally or vertically?
      (1). For example, has an individual moved from one job to a similar one as far as authority and supervising duties are concerned (i.e. counselor on a staff, teacher in a public school (horizontal movement), moved to a similar job in a different field (i.e. counselor on public school staff to counselor on payroll of private firm), which is also horizontal movement or from a position as a college counselor to that of head of the college's counseling center (vertical movement)?
   b. Do people most often move from education to business to private practice or do they follow some other pattern?

5. Are certain jobs associated with length of time since completion of PhD?

a. Is there a relationship between first job and year of receipt of PhD?

6. Among thos subjects who teach, do most teach psychology, counseling, or something else?

7. Is there a relationship between present job and psychological training that has been applied?

This study was also an attempt to develop an adequate questionnaire and to receive a sufficient response to a mailed questionnaire.

The population studied was the 135 men and women who received PhDs in educational psychology, with a concentration of courses in counseling and student personnel psychology, from the University of Minnesota from 1952-1972. Their names and the available addresses were pulled from the Department's files by one of its staffers. When addresses were needed for members of the population, this researcher checked the American Psychological Association membership roster, various professional journals (mainly those connected with APGA), and also wrote to members of the Department who knew these people. Professor Gilbert Wrenn was very helpful, as he has maintained the present addresses of his advisees. This list received from the Department was also verified with Dr. William H. Edson and with a listing of dissertations, as some of the educational psychology graduates did not have a concentration in counseling. The final number in the population was 135.

Each person was sent a questionnaire and at the same time, asked to return a vita. After 34 days, a follow-up letter and an additional copy of the questionnaire was sent to each person who had not responded. Tables were then constructed which show the relationships between the areas posed in the introductory questions.

A review of literature on questionnaire techniques was undertaken. Questionnaires that dealt with factual rather than psychological material were studied, except in the case of mailed questionnaires, where all types were studied. Psychological Abstracts and the Educational Index were the references for this study.

A brief review of literature regarding the careers of those with PhDs in educational psychology was also undertaken. Educational Index was the reference for that study.

Besides the above-mentioned reviews, some of the theories of career development were studied, providing a framework for some of the questions. This reviewer is not aware of any specific discussion regarding the relationship between future employment and either dissertations or college work experience, but Super (1971) did theorize that one's opportunities play a part in determining one's career pattern. He claimed that reality testing helps guide one through the life states he has defined, and certainly interning in one's chosen field is a concrete way to test reality. He does mention entry jobs, which could be equated with either internships or first jobs, and feels these jobs are roles played, which result from compromises.

Similar to Super (1971), Holland (1971) did not specify either internships or college employment, but he did discuss the vocational choice process, which is partially composed of knowledge of the amount of differentiation between and within specific fields. While one is interning, she/he would most probably be exposed to these delineations, and also to evaluations from employers and prospective employers, also a factor Holland felt leads to one's vocational choice.

Another interesting aspect of Holland's (1971) to be considered was his definition of orientations, into which he then placed specific occupations. The two orientations most relevant to the subjects studied are the social and enterprising ones. Counselors are socially oriented, which he defined as possessing verbal, feminine, and dependent characteristics. Those who are enterprising are also verbal, but they are dominant and "strong masculine leaders." Since salesmen, managers, promoters, and business executives are listed in this field, would not consultants in a private business also be placed here? However, their business is to counsel, so are they just somewhat feminine or masculine and just somewhat dependent or dominating? It seems that Holland's orientations may provide a valid overall framework, but are just too narrow when individual cases are cited.

It also seems that Hoppock (1963) would value internships as he stated that one cannot evaluate fully an occupation and what it can offer the individual without a complete understanding of the occupation. He felt that facts relating to different vocations affect one's choice of a career because this is a way to discover what field meets one's needs, and he stated that these facts help one to anticipate how well satisfied she/he will be. This theorist also warns that even if an individual is very aware of her/his traits, she/he must also possess knowledge about the predicted career. The internship, then can very well be the period when prospective counselors see how well their needs are met, and also gain a very clear perspective regarding their vocational choice.

Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma (1951) also stressed the importance of actual occurrences in influencing the choice of a career, and they stated that a person's evaluation of them is what eventually determines one's vocational pattern. Therefore, it seemed logical to this reviewer that the relationships between actual experiences, such as internship or the writing of dissertations, and career patterns should be examined.

It was decided that two cover letters would accompany the original questionnaire, one co-signed by Norman Sprinthall, Chairman of the Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology and William H. Edson, Director of the Student Personnel Office. The other was signed by the instigator of this study, Susan Lichterman Warsett. Possessing the sponsorship of an organization associated with the potential respondents is predicted to result in a higher return rate, so it was hoped that this cover letter, bearing the University of Minnesota's Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology's heading, would prompt people to answer. Dr. Edson suggested that this official cover be the first sheet glimpsed by the population, and this researcher agreed, hoping it would separate this questionnaire from the many trivial ones authors claimed most educators receive. A copy of this cover letter is enclosed in the appendix.

The second cover letter, written by the investigator, also enclosed in the appendix, was the result of extensive research on this subject. Again, the last name of each potential respondent was handwritten, as a means of personalizing the form. The questionnaire, itself, was the first item discussed, as this researcher did not want the readers to have to wade through preliminary material before arriving at the request. The vita was asked for immediately, as this investigator felt it would contain much of the needed information, and in many cases was easily at hand. The "numerous demands" on the time of each subject was mentioned next, so that each person would know that the researcher empathized with her/him, but felt this was worthy of the half-hour it would take for completion. The specific time period was mentioned, as this was suggested in the literature. The purpose of the final sentence of the first paragraph is three-fold: 1)informational 2)showing the considerateness of the author 3)showing the author thought the study worthy of paying for all of the postage.

The first two sentences of the second paragraph explain the purpose of the study, and also reiterate that the Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology, not just a graduate student working on her Master's Degree, is interested in the results. The final sentence in this paragraph emphasizes the importance of each person's response, and also truly explains why this is the most logical population to query.

In the final paragraph, the subjects were told what would become of the material, and assured of its confidentiality.

Since there was no need to identify anyone directly with her/his institution, the researcher did not want to lose any potential respondents who wished to remain anonymous. Finally, an offer of the results of the study was proffered as a reward for the individual's participation.

Each person was thanked in advance for her/his cooperation, and the investigator's full name and address were enclosed, in case the return envelope was misplaced. The investigator's phone number was also included for anyone who wanted to check on the validity of this study.

Both cover letters were relatively short, no longer than the suggested single page. Neither cover letter referred to the questionnaire as such, but rather mentioned "the information," "questions," "form," "instrument," and "survey," since questionnaires are thought by many to be mere nuisances.

Once the cover letters were completed and the tentative questions were formulated, a pilot study of five subjects was undertaken. Four were contacted personally by the author and agreed to participate, while the fifth's participation was volunteered by one of the four. The experimenter typed the questionnaire and spaced it as closely as possible to the spacing she planned to use when it was typed professionally with smaller (elite) type. Because so few copies were involved, she had them Xeroxed.

The four people personally requested to complete questionnaires did so, and each communicated her/his constructive suggestions to the investigator. Due to these suggestions, the investigator wrote "Dear Dr. _____" on the cover letter from Drs. Sprinthall and Edson, and requested the subject state the department of her/his employment besides the institution.

The questions were not changed, and were kept to the minimum felt necessary. The three questions for which it was feasible were set up with specific alternatives so that the subject had to do nothing more than check an answer. However, in case the subject felt uncomfortable with the given choices or had more to add, she/he was given the opportunity to comment. Besides the questions, this researcher gave the responsents an opportunity to request a summary of their results, as this is often considered a just reward in educational research.

After the cover letters and questionnaires were professionally typed, they were reproduced by an offset process which looked quite professional and was very clear. The investigator then placed a number in ink on the back of the third sheet. This number in the right hand corner was placed to allow the author the knowledge of whose questionnaires had been returned.

Each subject's name and address was personally written on red, white, and blue air mail envelopes, and the researcher's name and return address was individually typed in the upper left hand corner of each envelope. Two air mail stamps were required, and the envelopes were mailed in Palo Alto, California May 29, 1973, a

Tuesday. The list of those receiving questionnaires is enclosed in the appendix, and was given the investigator by the University of Minnesota's Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology. As of July 2, 1973, 70 questionnaires, 52%, had been returned. Therefore, a new cover letter, also appearing in the appendix, another copy of the questionnaire, and another stamped, return envelope was sent via regular mail in personally addressed envelopes to the 65 nonrespondents.

This cover letter was also reproduced by the offset process, but unfortunately, it did not look as professional as the first one. This was not a problem with the questionnaires, as those intended for the follow-up were printed simultaneously with the originals. Again, the subject's name was handwritten in the salutation, but this time immediate attention was given to the potential respondent. The importance of the study was stressed by urging a reply as soon as possible and stating the importance of each response regarding prospective changes to be made in the Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology.

In the second paragraph, the investigator again showed consideration for the recipient and mentioned the return envelope also to motivate response. The rest of the letter is identical to the original.

The next step in the follow-up was taken by Dr. Edson, who on July 27, 1973 mailed letters to 29 of the nonrespondents, an example of which appears in the appendix. The subject's nickname was sometime used in the salutation, and she/he was informed of the already large response rate, so that she/he knew it was worth her/his time to reply. It seems, however, that most of those who had planned to reply had already done so, as only 10 more questionnaires were returned after this letter was mailed. Furthermore, this investigator spoke to one of the ten, urging him personally to reply, and to the secretary of another of the ten, leaving the message that his response would be appreciated. In this investigator's attempt to contact a third nonrespondent who was listed as living near her, the telephone company could find no record of his number. This event, along with the unreturned envelopes later found to have been sent to incorrect addresses, leads this investigator to wonder how many undelivered questionnaires are responsible for the final nonresponse rate of 18%. Therefore, after the original cover letter and questionnaire, one follow-up, a personal letter, and telephone calls to 2 nonrespondents, 111, or 82% of the population returned the questionnaires. This rate compares quite favorably with those of other studies reviewed by this researcher; however, if this study were repeated, it would probably be wise to do it earlier in the school year, when final examinations and summer vacations are not so near.

Results

The career patterns of the respondents are linked to either college employment or internship for some fields, as shown in Table 1. When this table is divided into the four broad areas of research, teaching, administration, and practice, the relationship between pre-doctoral employment and present jobs becomes more evident. The first category in the table, research, is the one in which the smallest percentage of its workers remain. As shown in Table 2, of those now engaged in this effort as their primary occupation, only 37% were so employed while in graduate school. As can be seen in Table 3, an even smaller percentage (30) of those now in the field were employed in it prior to receiving their doctorates. While only 35% of those now teaching were employed as teachers when in graduate school, over half (52%) of those who taught previous to receiving their PhDs are still teaching. The field of administration is one which has retained a larger percentage of the respondents. Sixty-five per cent of those presently employed as administrators held similar positions in graduate school, and 48% of those who were administrators in graduate school have remained in that field. Of the group now engaged in clinical practice, 73% were so employed before receiving their PhDs, but of the large number who worked as practitioners while in graduate school, only 43% remained in the field. Even though it is easier to predict job movement within the areas of administration and clinical practice, all students should be encouraged to familiarize themselves with all four of these prospective job areas.

Table 4 illustrates that the academic base of graduate school was applied, and therefore relevant, to most. One-half

Table 1 Relationship Between Present Job and Pre-Doctoral Employment of 111 Ph.D. Graduates in Counselor Education Who Received Degrees Between 1952 and 1972 from the University of Minnesota.

Present Job

re-Doctoral mployment	Research	Instructor Professor	Counselor Education	Student Personnel Adminis-tration	School Counseling Adminis-tration	College Counseling	Psychol-ogist	Other[1]	Total
	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Research	3	3				1	1	2	10
Instructor Professor	3	2	4		1	2		5	17
Counselor Education	1	2	7	1				1	12
Student Personnel Adminis-tration		1	2	5		1	1	4	14
School Counseling Adminis-tration			3	1	5				9
College Counseling			9	1		13		5	28
Psycholo-gist		1	6	1		1	5	2	16
Other[2] -----	1	2	1	2		1		2	9
Total	8	11	32	11	6	19	7	21	115[3]

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[1] This includes consultant, academic administration, student personnel education, general administration, public school administration, and unemployed.

[2] This includes general administration, public school psychologist, public school administration, consultant, and no report.

[3] Three subjects are included twice in present job, and one subject is included twice in Present Job.

Table 2

Number and Percent of Ph.D. Graduates in Each of Four Fields of Pre-Doctoral Employment Who Are Now Engaged in the Same Type Employment.

	Pre-Doctoral Employment in Area	Similar Current Employment	Similar Current Employment
	N	N	%
Research	8	3	37.5
Teaching	43	15	34.9
Administration	17	11	64.7
Practice	26	19	73.1

Table 3

Number and Percent of Ph.D. Graduates Whose Current Field of Employment Corresponds to Their Pre-Doctoral Employment.

	Currently Employed in Area	Similar Pre-Doctoral Employment	Similar Pre-Doctoral Employment
	N	N	%
Research	10	3	30.0
Teaching	29	15	51.7
Administration	23	11	47.8
Practice	44	19	43.2

Table 4 Relationship Between Present Job and Psychology Courses in Doctoral Program of 111 Ph.D. Graduates in Counselor Education Who Received Degrees Between 1952 and 1972 from the University of Minnesota.

Present Job

cademic sychological ase Applied	Research	Instructor Professor	Counselor Education	Student Personnel Administration	School Coun. Administration	Academic Administration	Coll. Coun.	Psychologist	Consultant	Other[1]	Tota
	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Definitely	4	10	29	11	3	6	17	5	5	7	97
Possibly, Not at all, No Answer	4	1	2		3		2	2		2	17
Total	8	11	31	11	6	6	19	7	5	10	114[2]

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[1] This includes student personnel education, general administration, public school administration, and unemployed.

[2] Three subjects are included twice in Present Job.

of those who are either public school counselors or administrators and one-half of those involved in research had either only possibly applied, not applied the academic base, or not answered the question, so it seems that students intending to enter these fields should be encouraged to take courses different from those taken by most of the other students in the department. Comments pertaining to this question were offered by 25% of the respondents, 41% of the comments positive, 24% neutral (merely presenting additional information or clarifying their view of the training), and 35% negative. Many of the negative statements were directed at the teaching, and also some of the positive remarks offered some constructive criticism of the instructional methods, stating a wish for more practical experiences and less theory.

Even though Table 4 demonstrates a definite relationship between present job and the application of the psychological base, Table 5 shows no relationship between a respondent's specific job and what aspect of her/his training she/he applied. The courses in learning and measurement and testing were mentioned most frequently as being applied, but their mention was not related to any specific group, so it can be said these courses, along with the numerous others mentioned, were generally applicable.

Upon admission to the Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology, each student is accepted by a faculty member as an advisee. Frequently, the student has expressed interests similar to those of the advising professor, and if the interests of the individual change in the course of graduate studies, the

Table 5 Relationship Between Present Job and Psychological Training Received in Graduate School that has been Applied by 111 Ph.D. Graduates in Counselor Education Who received Degrees Between 1952 and 1972 from the University of Minnesota.

Psychological Training Applied	Research	Instructor Professor	Counselor Education	Student Personnel Education	Student Personnel Administration	School Counseling Administration	Academic Administration	College Counseling	Psychologist	Consultant	Other[1]	Total
	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Measurement or Testing	2	3	8	1	5	2	3	9	2	4	3	42
Statistics	3	6	10	2	2	1	1	5	3		1	34
Research Methods	3		6	1	1	1	3	2	3		2	22
Learning	3	3	16	3	3	2	3	8	1	3	1	46
Differential Psychology	1	1	6	3	3	1	1	5				21
Personality	3	4	6	1	4	1	2	6		1	1	29
Abnormal	1	2	6	1	3	1	1	7		1	1	24
Clinical Psychology	1	3	7	1	1			5	1	1		20
Practicum and Internship	1	2	6		4	2		9	3	2	1	30
Counseling Courses	2	4	10	1	7	3	1	5	2	2	1	38
Other[2]	8	12	43	9	10	7	6	32	7	8	13	155
Total	28	40	124	23	43	21	21	93	22	22	24	461

[1] This includes general administration, public school administration, and unemployed.

[2] Please turn to the next page for this note.

[2] This includes motivation; decision making; individuals as related to group; personnel psychology; behavior theory; group; vocational psychology; adolescent psychology; developmental psychology; psychological base definitely applied, but no answer; psychological base possibly applied, but no answer; psychology; intervention skills; psychological base not at all applicable; most parts; social psychology; psychological theories; relationships; total learning environment; psychology of adjustment; child development; thesis; higher education; educational psychology; job; no answer; collateral fields; curriculum and instruction; humanisti psychology; philosophy; problem solving; understanding; mental health; industrial psychology.

student often changes advisors. Therefore, it is logical to expect that a student's first job will in some way be related to whomever had been her/his advisor. Table 6, however, shows that this was not the case, for there was no relationship between a subject's advisor and her/his first position. Because of this finding, however, it cannot be concluded that an advisor plays no part in one's first job because many more factors are also involved.

Time, itself, was a factor in one's first job, as documented in Table 7 where the respondents are grouped according to the year in which the PhD was granted. The final two years were examined separately rather than combined with the years previous to them, because the seventies have been a decade of change regarding jobs. Table 8 shows that when the seventies are separated from the 1950's and 1960's combined, there is still a significant relationship between one's first job and the year the PhD was granted. Less than 24% of those graduating between 1952-1969 took an initial job as a counselor educator while 33% of the 1970-1972 graduates began in that field. Positions as college counselors, professors, and student personnel administrators were secured by more than 45% of the former group, but these jobs were the initial ones received by only 20% of the latter group. Since the trends of entry level jobs seem to be changing somewhat, it is hoped that the Department is continuing to keep its coursework relevant to the prospective occupations of its students.

Table 6 Relationship Between First Job and Advisor of 111 Ph.D. Graduates in Counselor Education Who Received Degrees Between 1952 and 1972 from the University of Minnesota.

	First Job									
	Research	Instructor Professor	Counselor Education	Student Personnel Administration	School Counseling Administration	College Counseling	Psychologist	Consultant	Other[1]	Total
	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Wrenn	5	11	8	6	1	5	4	1	1	42
Dugan	2	3	7		2	5	3	1	1	24
Parker	1	1	6	2	1	2	1	1	2	17
Blocher		1	4		1	2	2	1		11
Edson			2		1	2			3	8
Hoyt		2	1	1		1		1	1	7
Cook		1	1	3					1	6
Other[2]		3	3	4	2	7	3	1	2	25
Total	8	22	32	16	8	24	13	6	11	140[3]

[1] This includes school psychologist, general administration, public school administration, academic administration, student personnel education, and not able to secure employment.

[2] This includes Borow, Darley, Eckert, Edwards, Flanders, Hagenah, Johnson, Keller, Lewis, Mork, Shaffer, Tennyson, Torrance, Wilk, and Willerman.

[3] Two subjects were included in two first job categories, and twenty-eight subjects were included in two advisor categories.

Table 7 Relationship Between First Job and Year Ph.D. Granted of 111 Ph.D. Graduates in Counselor Eudcation Who Received Degrees Between 1952 and 1972 from the University of Minnesota.

Year Ph.D. Granted

First Job	1952-1957		1958-1963		1964-1969		1970-1972		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
School Psychologist	2	5.9							2	1.8
Consultant	2	5.9	1	3.8			1	6.7	4	3.6
Academic Administration	1	2.9			1	2.7			2	1.8
Research	3	8.8	3	11.5	1	2.7			7	6.2
Student Personnel Administration	6	17.7	4	15.4	1	2.7	1	6.7	12	10.7
Professor	7	20.6	5	19.2	4	10.8	1	6.7	17	15.2
College Counseling	5	14.7	2	7.7	10	27.0	1	6.7	18	16.1
Counselor Education	6	17.7	6	23.1	11	29.7	5	33.3	28	25.0
Psychologist	1	2.9	4	15.4	2	5.4	1	6.7	8	7.1
Public School Counseling and Administration	1	2.9	1	3.8	4	10.8	1	6.7	7	6.2
General Administration					1	2.7	1	6.7	2	1.8
Public School Administration					2	5.4	1	6.7	3	2.7
Student Personnel Education							1	6.7	1	.9
Unable to Secure Employment							1	6.7	1	.9
Total	34	100.0	26	99.9	37	99.9	15	100.0	112[1]	100.0

[1] One subject was included in two first job categories.

Table 8 Relationship Between First Job and Year Ph.D. Granted of 111 Ph.D. Graduates in Counselor Education Who Received Degrees Between 1952 and 1972 from the University of Minnesota (1970's separated from previous years).

	Year Ph.D. Granted					
	1952-1969		1970-1972		Total	
First Job	N	%	N	%	N	%
School Psychologist	2	2.1			2	1.8
Consultant	3	3.1	1	6.7	4	3.6
Academic Administration	2	2.1			2	1.8
Research	7	7.2			7	6.2
Student Personnel Administration	11	11.3	1	6.7	12	10.7
Professor	16	16.5	1	6.7	17	15.2
College Counselor	17	17.5	1	6.7	18	16.1
Counselor Education	23	23.7	5	33.3	28	25.0
Psychologist	7	7.2	1	6.7	8	7.1
Public School Counselor and Administration	6	6.2	1	6.7	7	6.2
General Administration	1	1.0	1	6.7	2	1.8
Public School Administration	2	2.1	1	6.7	3	2.7
Student Personnel Education			1	6.7	1	.9
Unable to Secure Employment			1	6.7	1	.9
Total	97	100.0	15	100.3	112[1]	100.0

---

[1] One subject was included in two first job categories.

Even though first jobs are related to the year the PhD was granted, Table 9 shows that this close relationship is not applicable to one's present job. This could possibly be due to the fact that one has had more experiences on which to build her/his career during each year since she/he has been at the University as a graduate student. Some interesting trends do exist, however. All of the graduates presently engaged in research received their PhDs between 1952 and 1963, and this field accounts for the positions of 17% of the 1952-1957 graduates, only to be surpassed in numbers for this time period by counselor education. Counselor education is the profession of 29% of the 1952-1957 graduates, and it is about as popular for the rest of the time periods, as it is the position of 26% of the 1958-1963 graduates, 24% of the 1964-1969 graduates, and 33% of the 1970-1972 graduates. The broad area of clinical practice, including college counselors, psychologists, and consultants accounts for the jobs of 33% of the 1958-1969 graduates, while these fields drew only 20% of the earliest five and last two years of graduates.

In order to study one's career pattern, however, it is also important to note which past experiences are relevant to an individual's present job. Table 10 offers one view of the college experiences that are now related to the respondents' positions, as 81% of the respondents felt their dissertation was either very closely or moderately

Table 9 Number of University of Minnesota Counselor Education Ph.D.'s Graduated in Four Time Periods Who Are Currently Employed in Ten Job Categories.

	Year Ph.D. Granted									
	1952-1957		1958-1963		1964-1969		1970-1972		Total	
Present Job	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Research	6	17.1	2	7.4					8	7.0
Professor	3	8.6	4	14.8	3	8.1	1	6.7	11	9.6
Counselor Education	10	28.6	7	25.9	9	24.3	5	33.3	31	27.2
Student Personnel Administration	3	8.6	2	7.4	4	10.8	2	13.3	11	9.6
Public School Counseling and Administration	1	2.9	1	3.7	4	10.8			6	5.3
Academic Administration	3	8.6			3	8.1			6	5.3
College Counseling	5	14.3	3	11.1	9	24.3	2	13.3	19	16.7
Psychologist	1	2.9	3	11.1	3	8.1			7	6.1
Consultant	1	2.9	3	11.1			1	6.7	5	4.4
Other[1]	2	5.7	2	7.4	2	5.4	4	26.7	10	8.8
Total	35	100.2	27	99.9	37	99.9	15	100.0	114[2]	100.0

[1] This includes student personnel education, general administration, public school administration, and unemployed.

[2] Three subjects are included in two present job categories.

Table 10 Relationship Between Dissertation and Present Job of 111 Ph.D. Graduates in Counselor Education Who Received Degrees Between 1952 and 1972 from the University of Minnesota.

	Was Dissertation Related to Present Job?									
Present Job	Very Closely Related		Moderately Related		Not Related Whatsoever		No Answer		Total	
	N	%[2]	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Research	2	25.0	2	25.0	2	25.0	2	25.0	8	100.0
Professor	3	27.3	6	54.5	2	18.2			11	100.0
Counselor Education	14	45.2	13	41.9	4	12.9			31	100.0
Student Personnel Education	1	33.3	1	33.3	1	33.3			3	99.9
Student Personnel Administration	2	18.2	7	63.6	2	18.2			11	100.0
Public School Counseling and Administration			6	100.0					6	100.0
Academic Administration			4	66.7	2	33.3			6	100.0
General Administration			2	50.0	2	50.0			4	100.0
Public School Administration			2	100.0					2	100.0
College Counseling	5	26.3	12	63.2	2	10.5			19	100.0
Psychologist	3	42.9	2	28.6	1	14.3	1	14.3	7	100.1
Consultant	1	20.0	4	80.0					5	100.0
Unemployed							1	100.0	1	100.0
Total	31	27.2	61	53.5	18	15.8	4	3.5	114[1]	100.0

[1] Three subjects are included in two present job categories.

[2] Percentages refer to number in each row.

related to her/his present job. With the exception of research and general administration, where only 50% of the respondents felt their dissertations were either very closely or moderately related to their present job, at least a majority in all other job fields checked this category. Additional comments regarding this question were offered by 31% of the respondents, 49% of whom wished to clarify the moderately related area, 30% the very closely related area, and the rest encircling not related whatsoever. All of those who circled "very closely related" and commented, stated that the content was relevant, while 28% of the moderately related group felt the research and statistical methods were later applied, but not the content. Similarly, 43% of those encircling "not related whatsoever" and commenting, have applied the research techniques. Since one's specific interests do change, it is very logical that the subject which encompassed so much of one's time while in graduate school, is no longer perceived as relevant.

Moving out of the college picture, Table 11 shows that one's progression of positions is not random, but very definitely related to one's past job. The data for this table were derived from either the respondent's vita or her/his answers to the first question on the questionnaire. Movement was defined as the change from one's immediate past position to the one presently held. With the exception of those who presently are professors, student personnel educators, and college counselors, at least half of the respondents in the

Table 11 Sequential Employment of 111 Ph.D.'s in Counselor Education Who Graduated from the University of Minnesota Between 1952 and 1972.

Immediate Past Job	Present Job: Research	Professor	Counselor Education	Student Personnel Education	Student Personnel Administration	Public School Counseling and Administration	Academic Administration	College Counseling	Psychologist	Consultant	Other[1]	Total
Research	5				1	1		2				9
Professor		4	2			1	1	2			1	11
Counselor Education		1	19	2			1	2	2	2		29
Student Personnel Education			2	2								4
Student Personnel Administration		1	1	1	6			3			1	13
Public School Counseling and Administration			1		2	3						6
Academic Administration	1	2	1		1		3					8
College Counseling		1	4				1	9			1	16
Psychologist	1	1	1					1	5		1	10
Consultant			2		1					3		6
Other[2]	1	1				1					3	6
Total	8	11	33	5	11	6	6	19	7	5	7	118[3]

[1] This includes public school administration, general administration, and not able to secure employment.

[2] This includes general administration, public school administration, and no information.

[3] Three subjects were included in two present job categories, and two of these in two past job categories.

other fields had been most recently employed in a position similar to the one held presently. For example, as seen in Table 12, 71% of those presently holding positions as psychologists had also been psychologists in their previous position. Table 13 also shows that with the exception of professors, student personnel administrators, and academic assistants, more than half in the other fields moved from a past job to a present one in the same field. As an example, 50% of those who were consultants in their immediate past positions, were also presently consultants. Table 14 is merely a condensation of Table 11 with the major numerical fields separated from all of the other for clearer viewing. Tables 15-19 are even further condensations of Table 11.

Those who do teach in a college or university, which include 71% of the respondents, were asked which subjects they teach. Counseling is the field taught by 65% of the professors, 37% teach psychology, 8% are involved in student personnel education, and 29% instruct in other fields. These numbers add up to more than 100% because 15 of the professors teach in 2 fields, 3 in 3 fields, and 1 in 4 fields. This finding shows that the graduates of the University of Minnesota's Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology do not limit themselves to only a few disciplines.

The results of this questionnaire reinforce the vocational theories previously mentioned because they show that there was a definite relationship between the first jobs the graduates took and their college employment, and also between the initial

Number and Percent of Ph.D. Graduates Now Employed in Each of Eleven Areas Who Were Formerly Employed in the Same Area

	Currently Employed In Area	Formerly Employed In Area	Formerly Employed In Area
	N	N	%
Research	8	5	62.5
Professor	11	4	36.4
Counselor Education	33	19	57.6
Student Personnel Education	5	2	40.0
Student Personnel Administration	11	6	54.5
Public School Counseling and Administration	6	3	50.0
Academic Administration	6	3	50.0
College Counseling	19	9	47.4
Psychologist	7	5	71.4
Consultant	5	3	60.0

Table 13

Number and Percent of Ph.D. Graduates Formerly Employed in Each of Eleven Areas Who Have Moved to a New Job in the Same Area.

	Formerly Employed in Area	Now Employed in Area	Now Employed in Area
	N	N	%
Research	9	5	55.6
Professor	11	4	36.4
Counselor Education	29	19	65.5
Student Personnel Education	4	2	50.0
Student Personnel Administration	13	6	46.2
Public School Counseling and Administration	6	3	50.0
Academic Administration	8	3	37.5
College Counseling	16	9	56.2
Psychologist	10	5	50.0
Consultant	6	3	50.0

Table 14 Sequential Employment of 111 Ph.D.'s in Counselor Education Who Graduated from the University of Minnesota Between 1962 and 1972 (most populous fields separated from others)

	Present Job						
Immediate Past Job	Professor	Counselor Education	Student Personnel Adminis.	College Counsel.	Psychologist	Other[1]	Total
Professor	4	2		2		3	11
Counselor Education	1	19		2	2	5	29
Student Personnel Adminis.	1	1	6	3		2	13
College Counseling	1	4		9		2	16
Psychologist	1	1		1	5	2	10
Other[2]	3	6	5	2		23	39
Total	11	33	11	19	7	37	118[3]

[1] See the next page for this note.

[2] See the next page for this note.

[3] Three subjects were included in two present job categories, and two of these in two immediate past job categories.

[1] This includes general administration, public school counseling and administration, research, academic administration, public school administration, consultant, unemployed, psychologist, and student personnel education.

[2] This includes consultant, academic administration, research, public school counseling and administration, general administration, no information, public school administration, and student personnel education.

Table 15

Job Movement

Counselor Education compared to all others

Present Job

Immediate Past Job	Counselor Education	All Others	Total
Counselor Education	19	10	29
All Others	14	75	89
Total	33	85	118[1]

[1] Three subjects were included in two present job categories, and two of these in two immediate past job categories.

Job Movement

Student Personnel Administration Compared to All Others

Immediate Past Job	Present Job: Student Personnel Administration	Present Job: All Others	Total
Student Personnel Administration	6	7	13
All Others	5	100	105
Total	11	107	118[1]

---

[1] Three subjects were included in two present job categories, and two of these in two immediate past job categories.

Table 17

Job Movement

College Counseling Compared to All Other Fields

Present Job

Immediate Past Job	College Counseling	All Others	Total
College Counseling	9	7	16
All Others	10	92	102
Total	19	99	118[1]

[1] Three subjects were included in two present job categories, and two of these in two immediate past job categories.

Job Movement

Psychology Compared to All Other Fields

	Present Job		
Immediate Past Job	Psychology	All Others	Total
Psychology	5	5	10
All Others	2	106	108
Total	7	111	118[1]

---

[1] Three subjects were included in two present job categories, and two of these in two immediate past job categories:

Table 19

Job Movement

Professors Compared to All Other Fields

Immediate Past Job	Present Job Professor	 All Others	 Total
Professor	4	7	11
All Others	7	100	107
Total	11	107	118[1]

[1] Three subjects were included in two present job categories, and two of these in two immediate past job categories.

jobs and the year in which the PhD was received. This shows that both one's experiences and one's opportunities are related to where one begins her/his career. After a person has left the college environment, the actual job she/he takes has the most effect on her/his future career pattern, as these people very often remained in the same field.

Since 82% of the population responded, it is evident that many of those in educational fields will take the time to respond to questionnaires, especially if they feel they are serving a purpose. This fairly good response also reinforces the investigator's belief that it was important to keep the questions to a minimum and to receive the support of either well-respected individuals or institutions.

APPENDIX

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
TWIN CITIES

Department of Counseling and
Student Personnel Psychology
139 Burton Hall
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455

April 28, 1973

Dear Doctor A,

By studying the information you can give us, we hope to reach conclusions that will be helpful in planning for the Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology and for counseling with students. We are asking for information from those who have received the Ph.D. degree in educational psychology with an emphasis in counseling and student personnel work since 1952.

Although we all have beliefs about the kinds of employment accepted by those who hold a doctorate, we don't have much solid information about the trends in initial employment, the patterns of career development or the range of positions in which those with the doctorate eventually are employed. Mrs. Susan L. Warsett, a graduate student, is interested in career development patterns of those who hold the earned doctorate. Together we are asking you to respond to the enclosed questions.

We believe that many of you will have some interest in knowing what we learned. If you check the space to indicate that you wish to have a report, we will send you a summary when the study is completed.

Sincerely yours,

Norman O. Sprinthall

Norman Sprinthall
Associate Professor and Chairman
Department of Counseling and Student
Personnel Psychology

William H. Edson

William H. Edson
Professor and Director
Student Personnel Office

NS/WHE/dlk

Dear Dr. *A,*

I would very much appreciate your sending me a copy of your vita and answering the attached questions. If items on the enclosed form are answered by the vita sheet, they do not need to be entered into the form itself. I realize there are numerous demands on your time, and this instrument will probably not require more than one-half hour for completion. For your convenience, a stamped return envelope is enclosed.

This survey is the basis for a study of the Ph.D. graduates of the Educational Psychology Department of the University of Minnesota from 1952-1972. I have attempted to contact those with concentrations in either counseling or student personnel, as this study is of interest to the Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology Department. As you can see, the validity of this study depends on the receipt of all forms, especially since you are the group best able to evaluate the department's Ph.D. program.

The results of this study will appear in a paper written for the Master's degree under the supervision of William Edson. You can be assured that your responses will be confidential and in no way identified directly with you or your institution. I would be very happy to send you a brief summary of the findings, and for this reason only have I requested your name and address on the enclosed instrument.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Yours truly,

Susan Lichterman Warsett

Susan Lichterman Warsett
267 Curtner Avenue--Apartment 11
Palo Alto, California 94306
Phone: 415--493-1883

Ph.D. Follow-Up

1. Please list the jobs you have held, beginning with the one you presently hold, and ending with any you held as a graduate student. In the event that you hold/held more than one job simultaneously, please include only your primary employment.

	TITLE	EMPLOYED BY (DEPARTMENT & INSTITUTION)	CALENDAR YEARS HELD	DUTIES
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				
6.				
7.				
8.				
9.				
10.				

2. Was there a relationship between your dissertation and what you are doing now?

   a. Very closely related

   b. Moderately related

   c. Not related whatsoever

   d. Comment, if you wish.

3. If you are teaching, what do you teach?

   a. Psychology

   b. Counseling

   c. Other (please specify).

4. Do you feel the psychological base in your academic preparation as a counselor or student personnel worker has been applicable in your practice?

   a. Definitely

   b. Possibly

   c. Not at all

   d. Comment, if you wish.

5. If your answer to the preceding question was affirmative, which part of your psychological training do you apply (or have you applied) to your practice?

6. If you would like to receive a brief summary of the results, please include your name and address.

NAME

ADDRESS

(Please complete attached page.)

7. Please list the professional associations with which you are affiliated.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION	FIRST YEAR OF MEMBERSHIP	APPROXIMATE LENGTH OF MEMBERSHIP (IN YEARS)	OFFICE(S) HELD	COMMITTEE WORK	
				YES	NO
AERA					
Counseling & Human Development Division					
Administration Division					
Other Division (please specify)					
APA					
Division 2					
Division 12					
Division 13					
Division 15					
Division 17					
Division ( )					
APGA					
ACES					
ACPA					
ARCA					
ASCA					
NVGA					
SPATE					
Other (please specify)					
AVA					
NADW					
NASPA					
Other (please specify)					

Dear Dr. A

I am aware of the fact that you are very busy, but I do urge you to respond to this questionnaire as soon as possible. Since we are studying the more recent Ph.D. graduates of the Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology, each response that we receive is indeed crucial. If changes are to be made in the department, it certainly is vital to know what you are doing and how you feel about your training.

As you can see, I have enclosed an additional copy of the questionnaire and a stamped, return envelope in case you misplaced the originals or lost them in your other correspondence. If you have already returned the original form, I am sorry to have taken up more of your time.

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Sincerely yours,

Susan Lichterman Warsett

Susan Lichterman Warsett
267 Curtner Avenue--Apartment 11
Palo Alto, California 94306
Phone: 415-493-1883

Education Career Development Office

July 27, 1973

Dear

Recently you received a career inquiry from Sue Warnett. Seventy per cent of the career questionnaires have been returned by the Minnesota graduates who hold the doctorate in educational psychology with an emphasis in counseling or student personnel work. Twice recently someone has asked me whether it is too late to reply and expressed some guilt feelings about having repeatedly put the questionnaire aside. It is not too late.

We have reached the time that I should tell Sue to summarize her data and write her report so that she can receive the M.A. degree. Our desire to make the summary report as useful to the department as possible argues for delay until we receive more of the questionnaires.

If you have only put the papers aside and rather expect to respond, we hope that your moment of action has arrived. From our standpoint this is the best of all possible times. We want to include you in the study of Minnesota Ph.D.'s.

Sincerely yours,

William H. Edson
Professor and Director

WHE/dlk

Population

1. Aalto, Ensio Emil
2. Almos, Kermit Odell
3. Apostolakos, Peter C.
4. Armstrong, Jack Lynn
5. Barrett, Roger Lewis
6. Becvar, Raphael Jacob
7. Bednar, Richard Lee
8. Benson, Loren Lane
9. Bentley, Joseph Charles
10. Bergeson, Roland George
11. Bertness, Henry Jerold
12. Blocher, Donald H.
13. Bloland, Paul Anson
14. Boyd, Robert Emmett
15. Bradley, Arthur Dickinson
16. Burgess, Thomas Charles
17. Burks, Herbert McDaniel Jr.
18. Carlson, Raymond Peter
19. Carlson, William Donald
20. Checketts, Keith Thomas
21. Chipman, Donald Arden II
22. Christensen, George Milford
23. Christiansen, Harley Duane
24. Crockett, John David
25. Cross, Theodore Ryland

26. Dell, Don Michael
27. DeMann, Michael Marcus
28. Dickerson, Joseph Holmes
29. Dickinson, James Charles
30. Dilley, Josiah Steiner
31. Dixon, David Newell
32. Dowd, Edmund Thomas
33. Dustin, E. Richard
34. Dyrhaug, Donald Robert
35. Edson, Kenneth Charles
36. Engel, Wayne E.
37. Farquhar, William Walter
38. Fenderson, Douglas Allen
39. Fletcher, Kenneth Richard
40. Forster, Jerald Ray
41. Fort, Gerald Marshall
42. Free, John Ellsworth
43. Fuhriman, Adelaid Jean
44. Gildseth, Bruce Lee
45. Gimmestad, Michael Jon
46. Glotzbach, Charles Jerome
47. Golic, Byron Neil
48. Golub, Carol Gustafson
49. Golub, Herbert Paul
50. Grimsrud, Richard Arlo
51. Hagenah, Theda
52. Harris, Chester Wayne

53. Hedahl, Buelah Minerva
54. Heist, Paulus A.
55. Hellervik, Lowell Waldo
56. Hogan, Joe
57. Hoopes, Margaret Howard
58. Hoyt, Kenneth Boyd
59. Hultgren, Dayton Delano
60. Huyck, Elnora T.
61. Island, Donald David
62. Jackson, Joyce T.
63. James, Newton Elder
64. Jesness, Carl Frandell
65. Johnson, Donald Loy
66. Johnson, Duane Monroe
67. Kaul, Theodore Jay
68. Kendall, John Seedoff
69. King, Leslie Albert
70. Kloster, Clair Garfield
71. Krebs, Marguerite Cuddy
72. Krumboltz, John Dwight
73. Lee, Gerald Raymond
74. Lee, Robert Edward
75. Leino, Walter Bertram
76. Leton, Donald Alphon
77. Lewis, Charles Leonard
78. Loeffler, Dorothy Rose
79. Luckey, Eleanore Braun
80. Mahler, Clarence Argus

81. Manbeck, Maurice Wesley
82. Markwardt, Frederick Charles Jr.
83. Matthews, Romine E.
84. Middents, Gerald John
85. Mikkelson, James E.
86. Moon, Lawrence Preston
87. Nelson, Kenneth Glenn
88. Nettleton, Mark Ardell
89. Nevison, Myrne Burdett
90. Nordin, Margaret Noble Lahey
91. Nuckols, Troy E.
92. Oda, Ethel Aiko
93. Packard, Ralph Edward Jr.
94. Packwood, William Theodore III
95. Park, Georgia Korner
96. Parker, Clyde A.
97. Patterson, Cecil Holden
98. Rank, Richard Clayton
99. Ray, Philip Bond
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